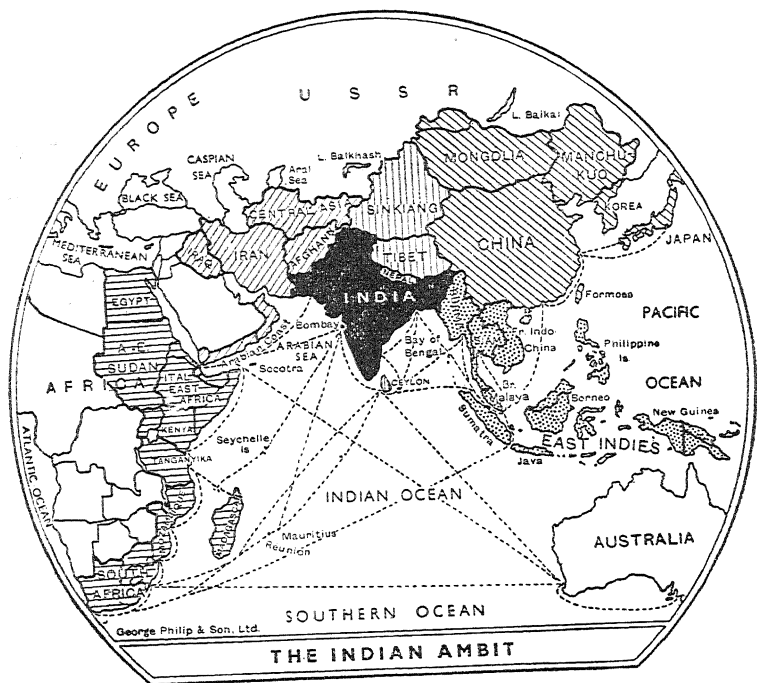


LANDS BEYOND THE BORDER



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BY

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PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

I AM glad that this volume has been well received by teachers and students and that a second edition has to be brought out.

The war has led to several changes in the frontiers, relationships and trade of the various countries included in the volume. India itself has been partitioned into two Dominions—the Dominion of India and the Dominion of Pakistan, so that Pakistan is now a 'Land beyond the Border'. But things have not yet sufficiently settled down. Movements are going on in several countries that might well have an important influence on their progress and problems. The situation in Egypt and the Sudan, in the former Italian Colonies on the Indian Ocean, in French Indo-China, and in Indonesia is yet very uncertain and the relationship of Pakistan and India to each other and to the British Commonwealth is yet very obscure. It is therefore desirable not to introduce material changes in the text for the present edition, which is thus practically a reprint of the first edition. The Tables, however, at the end of the volume, have been revised and the latest available figures have been given.

H. L. KAJI

Malabar Hill, Bombay

November 1947

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

INCREASING interest is being evinced in recent years in India in a fuller knowledge of the countries which are adjacent to or which have a special interest for India. Most text-books on Geography which are in general use in Indian schools and colleges do not treat these countries in sufficient detail to meet this need. *Lands Beyond the Border* is not a regional or economic geography of the usual type. It is an attempt to place within the easy reach of the student a small volume which provides material not only for a geographical study, regional and economic, of these countries, but also discusses briefly their progress and problems, with special reference to the interest they have for India.

H. L. KAJI

Cumballa Hill, Bombay

January 1939

INTRODUCTION

To the Indian student, the region of first importance for study is naturally his homeland, India. Next in importance come those countries or regions which on account of their situation are in close association with India, or in which India is particularly interested. It may be that some of these lands beyond the borders are not very extensive or densely populated or richly productive ; it may be that they are not politically, industrially, commercially or culturally advanced lands ; it may be that great barriers like mountains and oceans handicap intercourse and intermingling. And yet the importance of the geographical study of the lands beyond the borders cannot be too strongly emphasized, since fuller knowledge of our neighbours, their position, physiography, population and production, would promote progress by surmounting the barriers and enabling freer and closer intermingling and intercourse. If our neighbours were backward, ours would be the mission to bring the torch of culture and civilization to them ; if they were progressive, theirs would be the mission of accelerating our progress ; with them, we could enter into those exchanges of the surpluses of their special products with those of ours, which make up modern commerce ; with them, we could, by suitable alliances and pacts, make ourselves into a compact, well-knit block which could defy exploitation and aggression from outsiders. An analytical study of the advanced lands of the world is very illuminating and suggestive, but despite the progressive conquest of distance and time, neighbours remain nearest and closest and deserve a more detailed geographical study so as to establish closer relationships for mutual advantage.

The situation of India at the head of the ocean which is named after it and at the centre of the eastern hemisphere, suggests that India should be the dominating land and the nerve centre of that hemisphere, that is, of Asia and Europe, Africa and Australia, but more particularly of the lands bordering the Indian Ocean, that is of Eastern Africa, Southern

Asia and Western Australia. The mighty ranges that extend from the great mid-world mountain knot of the Pamir plateau, the Roof of the World, create compartmental lands, isolated one from the other by high and long mountain walls; but gaps and breaks, saddles and passes, provided by nature and made more serviceable by man, do permit intercourse and India cannot afford to neglect its neighbours on the north, like Sinkiang and Tibet. It cannot further be forgotten that the most striking feature of our meteorology is the Monsoons, and this peculiar feature we share with other Asiatic lands in the east and the south-east. Climate being one of the most important constituents of environmental control, all these lands are recognized as forming one great natural region of the Earth—the Monsoon region. Therefore China and Japan, too, clearly fall within the scope of the lands beyond our borders.

On our northern borders then, we have the great intramontane region of Asia. The small kingdom of Nepal with its Hindu King and brave Gurkha soldiers; Tibet, the land of mystery, the land of Gourishanker and Kinchinjunga, of Kailas and the yak, of Manasarowar and the Brahmaputra; Sinkiang with Kashgar and Yarkand, the great centres of caravan traffic for centuries between China and Europe and India; Central Asia, the homeland of the Aryans and the centre of the later Tatar and Mogul invasions of India; all these have a fascination, a charm, an interest to the Indian student of geography. Much of these lands has not been sufficiently explored and one can but hope that Indian explorers will take up the geographical exploration of these regions at no distant date and build up data which might result in closer association of these border lands with India.

On the western borders, we have the plateau of Iran, a part of which, Baluchistan, is a part of the Indian Empire. Afghanistan and Iran therefore claim our attention. Afghanistan and Northern India have much in common. A part of the country drains into the Indus. Ancient monarchs ruled both these lands. Immigration, incursions, invasions and intercourse have been the cementing forces between them; our large Moslem population gives us a religious affinity with the peoples there; Afghan trade flows through and to India. Iran, the land of Darius and Cyrus, the land

of Saadi and Hafiz, whose songs delight us, the land of Sohrab and Rustem whose exploits related by Firdausi enthuse us, the land of oil, the homeland of the Parsis who have been playing no mean part in modern India despite their small numbers, has a great appeal to our intellectual and economic sense. The movement of the Europeans eastwards has given great significance to the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf, so that the Indian ambit may well be considered to include Iraq, which, conquered with the assistance of the Indian Expeditionary Force and having been a mandated territory of the British Empire, should offer great opportunities for trade and commerce to Indians. Arabia too has had close connexions with India. Arab merchants used to be conspicuous on the Malabar coast and in Ceylon; from Arabia came the great Islamic force that claims about one-fifth of the population of our land; and it is Aden that holds the key to the entrance of the Arabian Sea from Europe.

On the southern borders, we have the gem of the Indian Seas—Ceylon. Whether Ceylon or Sumatra was the arena of the great epic struggle of the *Ramayana*, there is no doubt that Ceylon geographically is a part of India. Its large immigrant Indian population and its large trade with us, particularly with South India, and the fact of its being the focus of routes between great European and great Asiatic nations lend it an importance to us which should admit of no doubt or hesitation.

On the east, we have Burma, Siam, Malaya and the East Indies. Burma, till recently a part of the Indian Empire, is now beyond our borders. As a source of oil, as the home of a large immigrant Indian population, and as the gateway through the Irrawaddy valley and Bhamo to Yunnan and through the valleys of the Yangtze Kiang and the Si-kiang to China, the interest that we have in Burma is obviously great. Siam, as the buffer between the British and the French power in Asia; as the land where Japanese influences are increasing in volume and strength, and which includes the Isthmus of Kra, the canal across which might create complications in our Mediterranean, the Bay of Bengal; and as the region where Hindu cultural influences may still be perceived, has a claim on our attention also. Malaya, the very narrow

peninsula south of Kra, is a British possession of profound strategical significance. The peace of the Orient depends upon Singapore. The satisfactory solution of the Pacific problem is bound up with the strength of Singapore. This great naval base is a bulwark of strength and holds in check possible Japanese aggression against white Australian autonomy, Dutch industry and Indian aspirations. French Indo-China, as a transition zone between Indian and Chinese civilizations, is a part of Further India, where India of the future may find scope for furthering its influences in trade and economic developments. Java and Bali bear a strong impress of Hindu culture and the great archipelago is the forum where meet the great civilizations of the world—Hindu, Moslem, European and Mongolian—and which might well play an important role in the struggle for the mastery of the Pacific.

Besides these lands on our borders, there are others which have as great a claim on our attention. The lands of South Africa, Eastern Africa, Kenya, Tanganyika and Mozambique and the islands of the Indian Ocean, like Mauritius, have a special interest for us. They formed a part of the great Indo-African continent in the Gondwana Age and therefore are connected through similar physical features. They offer great scope to our merchant-adventurers and colonists. Our vested interests in these lands clamour for protection, as in Zanzibar, Kenya and Natal and it is the control of these lands by Britain which makes the Indian Ocean a British lake.

Our great eastern neighbours too cannot be ignored. The Celestial Empire, China, now fallen upon evil times, and the Land of the Rising Sun, Japan, loom large on the political and economic horizons of modern times. The huge market, the play of the sovietizing forces and the leavening of American culture in the one, and the active industrialization and rapid modernization of the other make these regions the centres of world-interest of which India, as a near neighbour, cannot remain a disinterested spectator or a passive onlooker.

A geographical study of these lands beyond our borders is one of absorbing interest and is an essential preliminary to a more active role in their affairs which is suggested by our situation and indicated by the progressive widening of the outlook of the Indian peoples and government.

CHAPTER I

WESTERN BORDERS

1. AFGHANISTAN

AFGHANISTAN has a considerable interest for India, not only as it is a neighbour beyond our borders to the north-west, but also because there always has been a close connexion between the two countries, geographically, politically and ethnologically. The past conjures up many memories and visions. The waves of Aryan immigration, the advance of Alexander and his Macedonians, the centuries of Afghan incursions and invasions, conversions and assassinations, the rise and fall of the Mogul Empire, the increasing isolation and segregation of Afghanistan—until very recently—and its transformation into a hermit kingdom, a typical buffer state, preventing the Russian octopus from throwing out its tentacles to the fields of the Indus and the Ganges, the meteoric flash of Amanullah, and his hasty dash at quick modernization—all these present a bewildering panorama of pictures, of fascinating enchantment and absorbing interest to Indians.

Access by land to India has always been from the north-west from the earliest times. The lofty ranges of the Himalayas have been our surest defence and our great bulwark against aggression and barrier against invasion from the north, and have not permitted any but feeble streams of intrusion from the Chinese, Mongols, and Tatars. Our main gate is on the north-west, through which have poured down on our fair fields, time after time, raiders, invaders and traders, settlers and fighters. The Arabs and the Europeans came by the sea and penetrated from the coast inland. But the Turk and the Tatar, the Scythian and the Grecian, the Aryan and the Afghan, the Mogul and the Mongol, the Iranians and the Turanians have come to us from Khurasan, Herat and Kandahar through the Baloch country or from Balkh and Kabul by the valley of the Kabul and other rivers in that area.

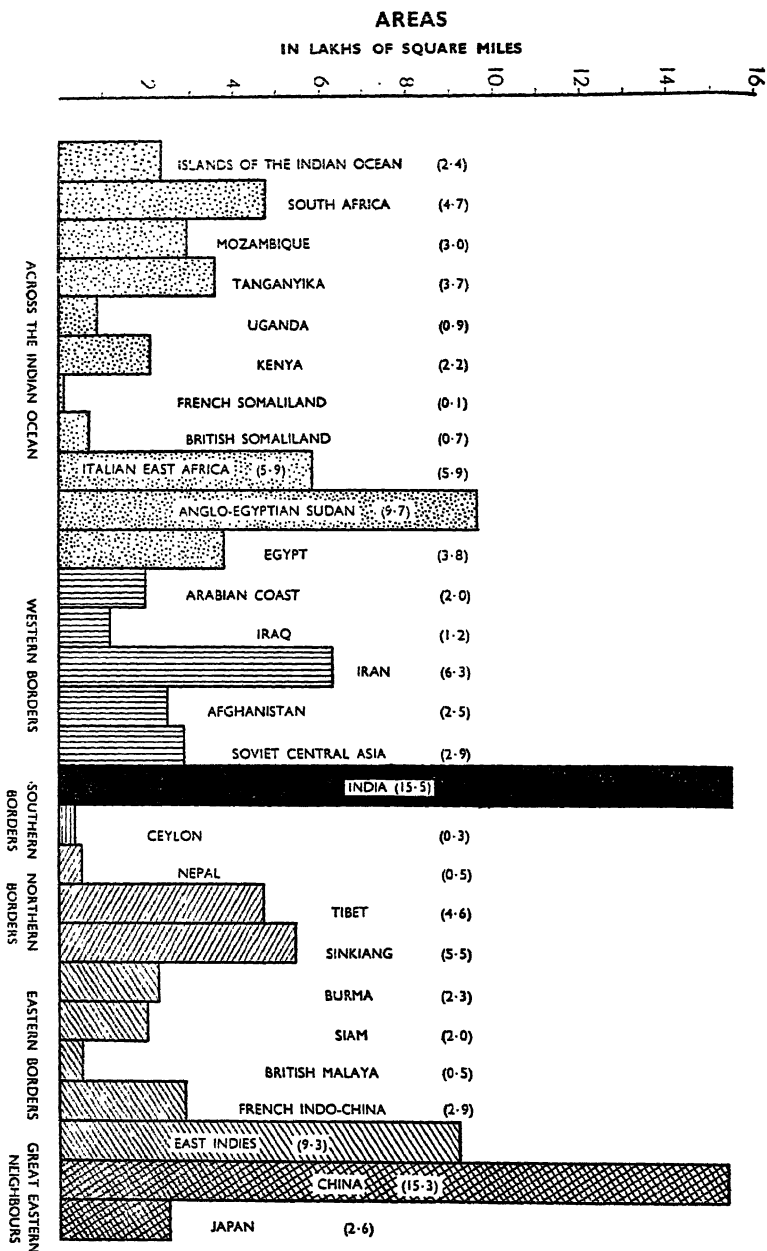


FIG. 1. Lands Beyond the Border—Areas

The continued pressure of the Tatars on the Central Asian steppes inaugurated the great historical movement of the Aryan race, which split up into three branches. The branch that directed its course to our land crossed the Amu Daria or Oxus, settled down for centuries in the fertile valleys and plains between that mighty river and the lofty Paropamisus or the Hindu Kush, and thence filtered down to the plains of the Indus through any convenient valley. During their occupation of the cis-Oxus plains of Turkistan and Badakhshan they achieved considerable progress, and Balkh, the birth-place of the great Zoroaster, became a strongly fortified citadel, and a sentinel of Iran against Turan. For the empire of Iran under Darius covered a large part of Afghanistan, including the three great key-centres, Herat, Kandahar and Kabul. Alexander the Great swept over Iran and continued his triumphant march to Kandahar and thence along the valleys of the Helmand and its tributaries to Kabul. From Kabul, he proceeded farther northwards, crossed the Hindu Kush by the Bamian pass and reached Balkh before going on to India. His early death led to the dismemberment of his far-flung and ill-knit empire, and Seleucus emerged as master of the lands between Iraq and Turan. Afghanistan was at this time a great land, with a dense population, and important trade emporiums, the bulk of the people being Hindu or Aryan, till their conversion to Buddhism under the great drive of the Emperor Ashok. While conquerors came and went, while empires rose and fell, the valleys, particularly those east of Kabul, remained peopled with Hindu hillmen, and great ethnological affinity connected the populations of the Kabul and the Kunar, Kandahar and Gandara and the Derajat and Yusufzai, with those on the Indo-Gangetic plain, both groups being parts of Hellenic or Indian empires and both being descended from the Aryan invaders from Central Asia. Thus from very early times, Afghanistan has been closely associated with the land of the Hindus and has been an integral part of India. As a matter of fact, the two countries have been one, geographically, politically and racially.

Physical features. Afghanistan is a mountainous country and forms the north-eastern part of the plateau of Iran, which stretches from the Armenian Knot on the west to the lofty

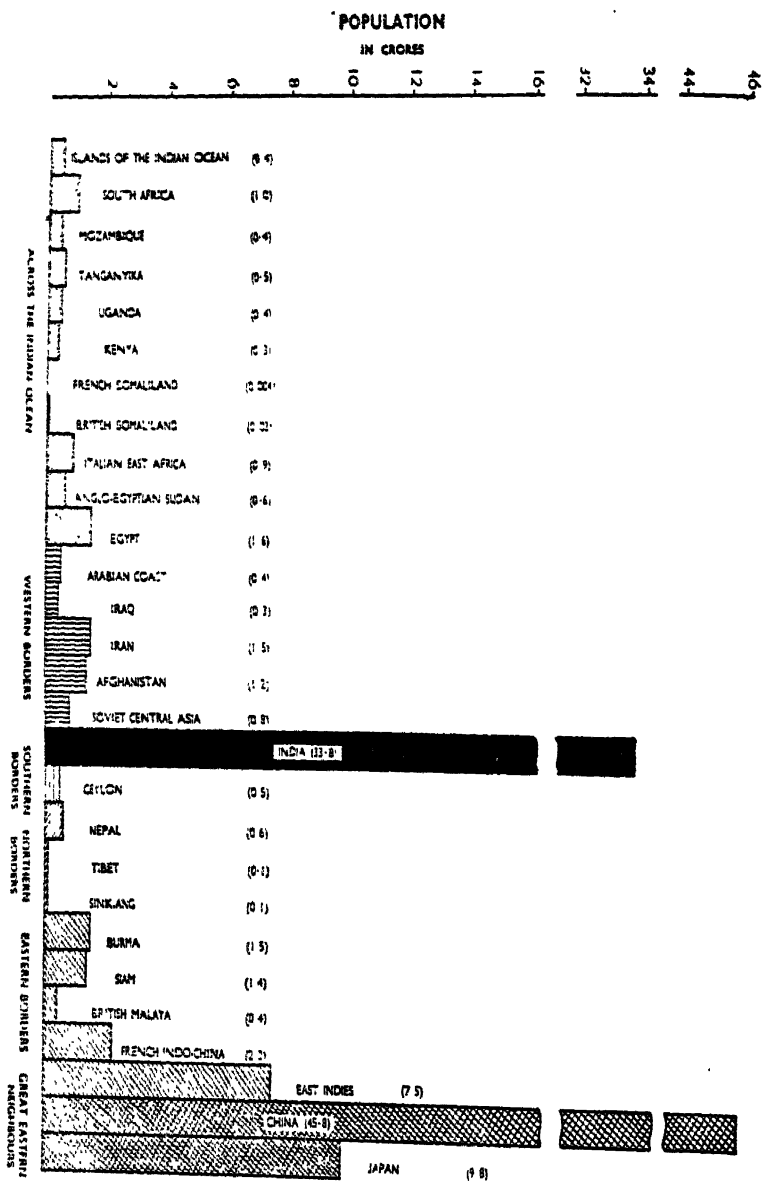


FIG. 2. Lands Beyond the Border—Population

Pamir plateau on the east. The Pamir plateau consists of broad, flat glaciated valleys about 12,000 to 14,000 feet high, separated by mountain ranges higher still. It lies in Central Asia, and is often spoken of as the Roof of the World. At the

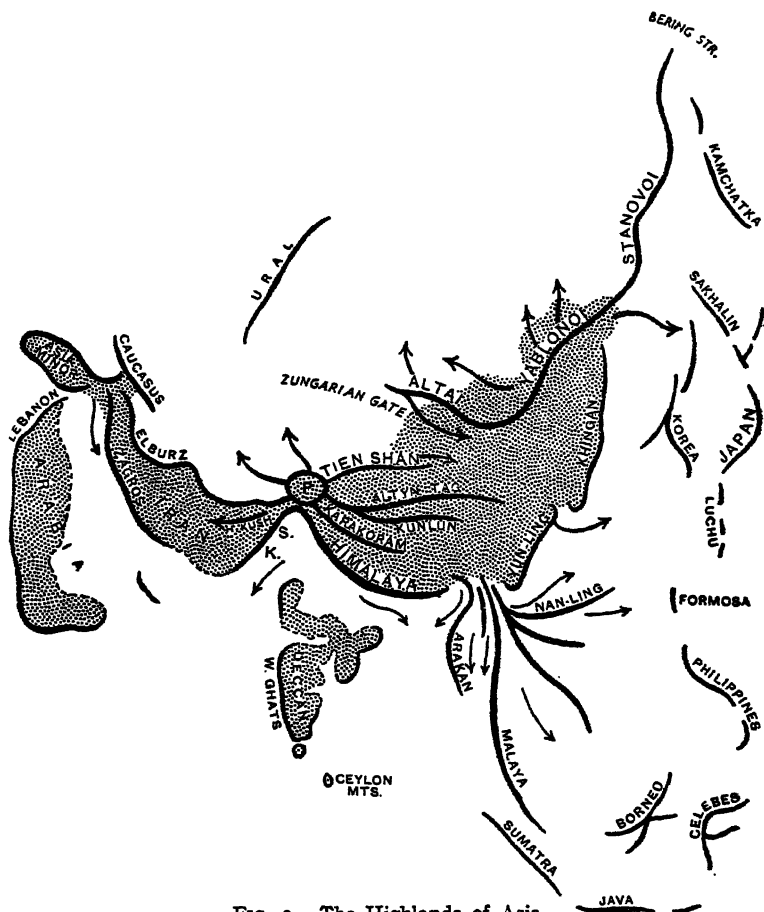


FIG. 3. The Highlands of Asia

Thick lines show the direction of the chief ridges. Dotted areas are plateaux.

Pamirs, meet four empires and kingdoms, India by way of the Indus and its tributaries, China by way of the Tarim, Russia by the Syr Daria and Amu Daria, and Afghanistan by the Upper Oxus and the valleys of the Paropamisus or the Hindu.

Kush. The Pamirs are also the great mountain node of Asia, whence radiate six important ranges, the Himalayas and the Karakoram, the Sulaimans and the Hindu Kush, the Tien Shan and the Kunlun. Between the arms of these mountain ranges, lie different countries, such as Tibet between the Kunlun and the Himalayas, Sinkiang between the Tien Shan and the Kunlun, Turan between the Tien Shan and the Hindu Kush, the northern plains of India between the Himalayas and the Sulaimans and the Kirthars, and Afghanistan between the Hindu Kush and the Sulaimans. The Hindu Kush or Paropamisus is a lofty but little known range, with peaks attaining heights of more than 20,000 feet, sinking down to the swamps of Seistan, but yet connected with the mountains of Khurasan, while the Sulaimans and lower down the Kirthars die away in the plateau of Baluchistan. Afghanistan thus largely consists of elevated plateau enclosed in the angle formed by the Hindu Kush running westwards with its extremity at Herat and the mountains running south-westwards, those of the Kunar, Safed-Koh and the Sulaimans, ending at Sibi on the Bolan pass. It has, however, one plain of some importance, the plain of Turkistan, outside this angle, on the north of the Hindu Kush, and separated from Russian Central Asia by the Amu Daria.

The area between the two arms is traversed by the **Helmand**, the chief river of Afghanistan, which rises near Kabul towards the point of the angle and flows southwards after a course of about 600 miles to the swamps of Seistan on the Iran-Baluchistan border. Its upper course passes through the highlands of Hazarajat, while in its middle course to the south, it flows through the hills of Zamindawar. It receives several important streams, the chief of which is the Arghandab, which receives the water of the Tarnak and the Lora and which joins the Helmand at Kala Bist about 80 miles west of Kandahar. The region through which these tributaries pass is the Ghilzai country, well known in Indian history. The Helmand then flows on through the desert and level regions of Registan. The swamps and hamuns of Seistan cover an extensive area, about 1,600 feet above sea level, which receives the rivers from the mountains and plateau of Khurasan and Afghanistan and forms the centre of an important inland

drainage basin. The **Kabul** river, issuing from near the point of the angle of the mountain systems, breaks through the south-western arm and after receiving the waters of the Kunar at Jalalabad, proceeds to meet the Indus at Attock. From the eastern slopes of this western arm, there arise other streams also, such as the Kurram and the Gumal which also meet the Indus lower down. The northern slopes of the Hindu Kush are drained by several rivers, the most important of which is the **Amu Daria** which forms the north boundary of Afghanistan for about 500 miles till, near Balkh, it takes a north-westerly course and flows into the Aral Sea. Others,

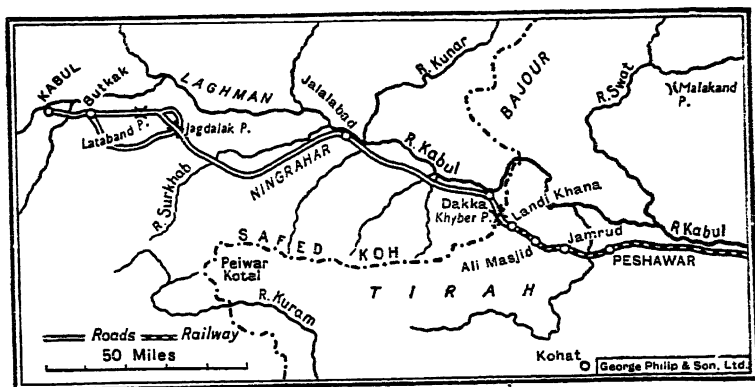


FIG. 4. The Khyber route to Kabul

like the **Murghab** which rises near Herat and the **Hari Rud**, on which Herat stands, drain to oases like those of Merv and Tejend. There are three drainage areas in Afghanistan; the northern, forming a part of the great inland drainage basin of the inland sea—the Aral Sea; the central, constituting a smaller inland drainage basin of the hamuns of Seistan, and the eastern, draining to the open sea through the mighty Indus.

The climate of Afghanistan may be said to be generally very extreme and very dry. The summers are very hot, the day temperatures reaching over 100° F.; the winters are very cold when the temperatures sink below zero; the rainfall rarely exceeds 20 inches and falls chiefly from January to April. The rivers are therefore greedily made use of for

irrigation, though for a greater part of the year the water-courses are dry.

Natural regions. Afghanistan is divided, naturally, into the following regions :

(i) **Afghan Turkistan**, also known as Bactria, is a low plain, the land sloping down from the high peaks of the Hindu Kush more than 15,000 feet high, to the Oxus about 900 feet above sea level. The neglect of irrigation works has been responsible for the sparse population though there are several wealthy trading towns in this region, the chief of which are Balkh, Mazar-i-Sharif, Andkhui, Tashkurghan and Kunduz.

(ii) **Badakhshan**, a mountainous area, is the eastern part of the cis-Oxus region, completely isolated by the Hindu Kush, the communication with Kabul being by way of the Khawak pass.

(iii) **Nuristan** (or Kafirstan as it was called formerly) is the country to the north of the Kabul, and consists of little-known, inaccessible valleys between the giant peaks and uplands of the Hindu Kush.

(iv) **Kabulistan**, is often the name given to the region round Kabul watered by the Kabul and its tributaries. It is the most thickly peopled and best developed part of the country, with a healthy climate.

(v) **Ghilzai country**. This lies between Kabul and Kandahar. From Kandahar about 3,500 feet above sea level, the old historic road to Kabul rises about 2,000 feet to Kalat-i-Ghilzai ; there is a further rise of about 2,000 feet to Ghazni, and of about 3,500 feet more to Shaikhabad. A downward slope thence takes us to Kabul which has an altitude of about 5,700 feet.

(vi) **Hazarajat** and **Zamindawar** comprise the highland region in the centre of Afghanistan, watered by the Helmand and the Arghandab. The population is sparse.

(vii) **Registan** is the desert region in the south-west of the country separated from Seistan by the valley of the Helmand.

(viii) The **Herat area** is the western part of Afghanistan. Herat, about 3,000 feet high, is about 65 miles from the Persian frontier, which stretches for about 400 miles from the Zulfikar pass in the north to Koh-i-Malikshah in the south. The

historic route from Herat to Meshed follows the valley of the Hari Rud.

People. Afghanistan has an area of some 245,000 square miles and is therefore appreciably larger than France with its 212,000 square miles. The population is sparse, being less than $1\frac{1}{4}$ crores. The people represent a medley of races which yet show more of differentiation than assimilation. The chief branches, however, are three—the Abdali or the Durani, the Ghilzai, and the Pathan. The Duranis are found chiefly concentrated in Zamindawar between Kandahar and Herat; the Ghilzais are to be found in the region between Kandahar and Kabul, though the Pathans and the Duranis also form important elements of the population there. The Pathans are the inhabitants of the hills and valleys of Eastern Afghanistan, some tribes like the Shinwaris being entirely on the Afghan side, others like the Mohamands and Waziris being on both sides of the Indo-Afghan border. Nuristan has chiefly Kafirs, survivals of the ancient Dardic races who had retreated before the Aryan invaders into the mountains and valleys of the region, but who had retained their ancient faith till their conversion to Islam by Amir Abdurrahman. Turkistan has peoples largely of Turki or Persian extraction, the Tajiks, the Turkomans and the Usbegs. The Hazaras of Hazarajat also represent an important people of Tatar origin. The population is naturally centred in the valleys, where with the river waters agriculture is possible. The chief language of the country is Persian, though Pushtoo is prominent in the Pathan tracts and Turki in Turkistan and Badakhshan. Towns are few. Kabul is of course the largest, with a population of about 80,000. Kandahar with about 60,000, Herat with about 30,000, and Mazar-i-Sharif with about 20,000 come next.

The dress and the house of the Afghan are a response to his environment. Baggy trousers, a loose shirt, a jacket, a cummerbund and a turban constitute his national dress, while his house is flat-roofed with special arrangements to collect water from the scanty rainfall.

Communications. The principal roads from Afghanistan to India fall into two groups—northern and southern. The northern roads start from Kabul or Ghazni. The Kabul

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route goes to Logar and crosses over the Peiwar and Shutargardan (Camel's Neck) passes to Parachinar in the Kurram valley; or goes along the Kabul valley to Jalalabad, and thence not by the Khyber pass as commonly believed but by the easier routes across the Malakand pass to the Peshawar valley. The Ghazni route lies over the Gomal and Tochi passes and leads thence to the upper Derajat and Bannu. The southern roads lead from Kandahar and do not go through

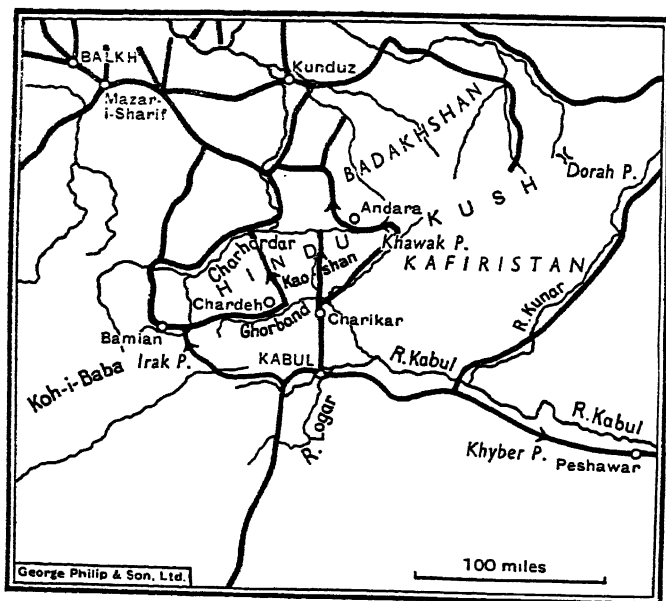


FIG. 5. Routes from Kabul over the Hindu Kush

the Bolan pass but traverse the parallel valleys of Baluchistan via Pishin and come out by different openings to the Derajat and converge on Multan which thus has been the great strategic commercial centre of the Lower Indus. Entering Afghanistan from India means climbing up, whichever route one goes by, the Derajat passes or the Bolan pass, the Gomal and the Tochi valleys, the Khyber pass or the Kurram valley.

The Kabul-Kandahar road is the most important route in Eastern Afghanistan; from Kandahar, the road goes up to the Hari Rud valley to Herat, while from Kabul also roads

emerge through various passes in the Hindu Kush to the same Hari Rud valley and proceed to Herat. The passes across the Hindu Kush, the best known of which is the Bamian pass, are over 10,000 feet high and are often snow-bound. They are utilized for caravan routes from Kabul to the cis-Oxus plains of Afghan Turkistan and Badakhshan.

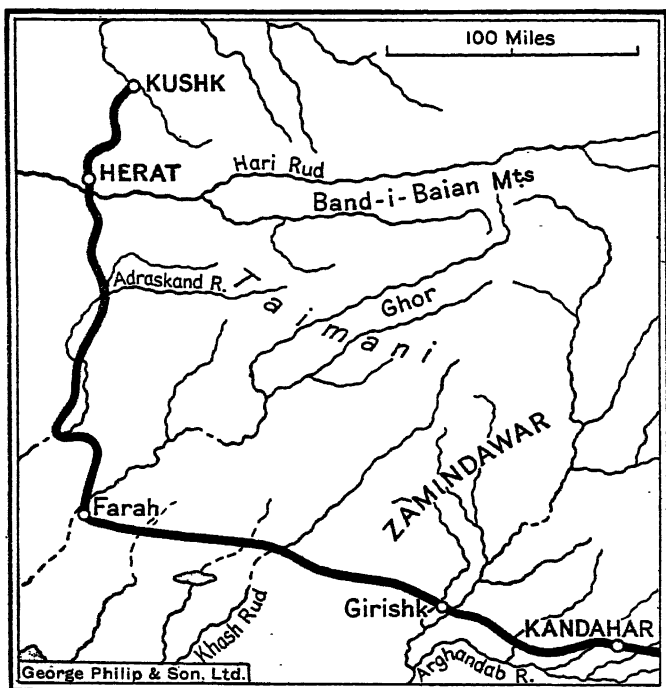


FIG. 6. Herat to Kandahar

Afghanistan has no railways so far, and it does not seem likely that it will have any in the near future. The Afghan trader demands railway connexion with India and with Russian Turkistan. As a matter of fact, Afghanistan leaves a very small gap indeed between the Indian and the Russian Trans-Caspian railway system. The railway via Quetta to Chaman takes one to the Afghan border on the south; from Peshawar, the extension across the Khyber pass to Landi Khana brings one to the Afghan border on the east. The

railway from Spezand near Quetta to Nushki and its extension to Zahidan (formerly Duzdap) reach the Iranian border. On the north, the Russian systems reach the Afghan border at Kushk via Merv and at Termez on the Amu Daria. The Trans-Caucasian railway has already reached Tabriz on the frontier of Iran in the north-west, while the Iraq railways connected by motor with the Taurus railways in Anatolia come up to the Persian Gulf and close to Iran. Indeed a Trans-Iranian railway would link up the Indian and the Iraq railways and establish a connexion with the European system. A Trans-Afghan railway from Chaman to Kandahar, 83 miles, Kandahar to Herat, 400 miles, Herat to Kushk, 125 miles, that is, in all a length of about 600 miles would bridge the gap in the Indo-Russian railway system. Another important and equally short route would be Chaman to Kandahar, 83 miles, Kandahar to Kabul, 333 miles and Kabul to Dakka near the Indian system, 183 miles, making in all a length of 600 miles.

Railways are excellent carriers of commerce, culture and civilization, but they also are carriers of political influence, and the Kings of Afghanistan from Abdurrahman to Zafar Shah have preferred isolation to intercourse, independence to possible absorption into Russia or India, and in their antagonism to railway construction, the Afghan rulers have been supported by India, which sees in railway facilities an aggravation of the problem of Afghan—and therefore ultimately of Indian—defence against Russian aggression. The advent of motor transport, however, has opened up another possibility for the improvement of transport facilities in the country. Little capital or credit is required by the state to construct roads and to maintain them from the proceeds of tolls, and there are greater possibilities of the development of a motor transport system than of a railway system in the Afghanistan of the future.

Trade. The Afghans are not themselves merchants and traders. The tribesmen have been good producers and expert carriers and they, particularly the Ghilzais, have developed into very efficient breeders of pack animals, camels, donkeys and others. The trade has been in the hands of the Armenians and the Jews, the Iranians and the Indians. These last also play a very prominent part in banking in the country.

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Agriculture is an important occupation of the people in the well-watered valleys, and the Afghan is an adept in the use of the scanty water supplies from rivers, wells and underground channels known as the Karez, and is able to obtain satisfactory crops of cereals and vegetables. Fruit culture is particularly important and the **angur** and the **anar**, the cherry and the mulberry, almonds, apples, and apricots, pears, plums and peaches are of very good quality. Fresh or dried, these form a staple food of many people. A condiment peculiar to the country is the **asafoetida**. On the poor pastures of the hill slopes sheep are reared, and the **dumba** or the fat-tailed sheep is peculiar to the country and very useful to the people. The flesh serves the people for food, the fleece and skin for materials for warm apparel and the grease of the tail makes a good substitute for butter.

The mineral wealth of Afghanistan is not great; but the northern part has fairly good resources. The mining areas in the Hindu Kush have been surveyed and coal has been found near to Kabul, while thick seams of excellent quality are found at Chahil in Turkistan and in the Surkhab valleys between Saighan and Ghorī. Copper of good quality and in fair quantity is found about 25 miles from Kabul, while Hazarajat is the chief lead-mining region. Iron deposits are found in large quantities in the passes leading to the Bamian, while Badakhshan is perhaps the only part of the world to produce lapis lazuli of the finest quality. Gold, silver, chromium, manganese and other minerals are found widely but are not properly worked. There are fair prospects of oil being available in the Herat-Meshed road in the valley of the Hari Rud.

The foreign trade of Afghanistan is chiefly with India, though the trade with Turan is also important. The imports from India in 1937-8 were about $2\frac{1}{4}$ crores of rupees, the exports to India about $3\frac{3}{4}$ crores. Fresh and dried fruits, wool and sheepskins and asafoetida are the chief exports; while imports are largely of cotton manufactures, and iron and steel goods. Indo-Afghan trade has great possibilities, but development is handicapped by the lack of transport facilities and the lack of a proper banking and commercial intelligence organization.

Afghanistan has been a buffer state, and India desires

to see it remain as such. Since the grant of independence in foreign relations after the Third Afghan War, foreign countries have been interesting themselves in the modernization and development of the country. But none has been so active and energetic as Soviet Russia, which sees in the Turki and Tajek population the possibility of sovietizing the cis-Oxus plain and of having only the Hindu Kush interposed between its Asiatic territories and India ; Pan-Islamism and geographical affinities draw Afghanistan to its western neighbour—Iran ; while its geographical, ethnological and historical associations help to maintain very friendly relations with India. It appears as if the country is on the eve of entering a new phase of its history, when it will no longer continue to be a typical undeveloped buffer state, and will want to play a larger role in the history of nations.

2. SOVIET CENTRAL ASIA

Russia established her power over Turkistan about sixty years ago. Tashkent was occupied in 1866, and in a few years Samarkand, Bukhara and Khiva were incorporated in Russian Central Asia. After the Russian revolution, Turkistan fell a prey to a certain amount of anarchy and disorder, but in 1919 the authority of the Soviet Government was established, and in 1925 Central Asia was divided into six parts, three being socialist soviet republics under the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Turkmenistan, Usbegistan and Tadzhikistan, the other three being formed into autonomous republics.

The Turkoman S.S.R. is bounded by Kazakstan on the north, by Iran and Afghanistan on the south, by the Usbegs S.S.R. on the east, and the Caspian Sea on the west. Its area is under 200,000 square miles and its population a little over 12½ lakhs. Ashkhabad, now renamed Polterask, is the capital. The eastern boundary follows the Oxus or Amu Daria fairly closely, and Kerki and Leninsk are fairly large towns on the river, while Merv on the Murgab is also important. A large part of the area is the Kara Kum desert, an irregular plain with high sand-dunes and low saline clayey depressions. In the southern borderland along the frontiers of Iran and Afghanistan, the land rises from the desert plain to the

mountains, the streams from which give rise to oases. The main occupation of the people is therefore agriculture based on irrigation, and extensive grassy steppes are found near Tedzhen and the Murgab. The chief product is cotton. Sheep-rearing and stock-raising are also carried on on the scanty pastures of the steppes, and wool, carpets and horses are important. The country is fairly rich in mineral resources, like salt, sulphates and oil. The Turkistan-Siberian railway runs through the country from Leninsk near Bukhara to Krasnovodsk on the Caspian Sea via Merv and Polterask.

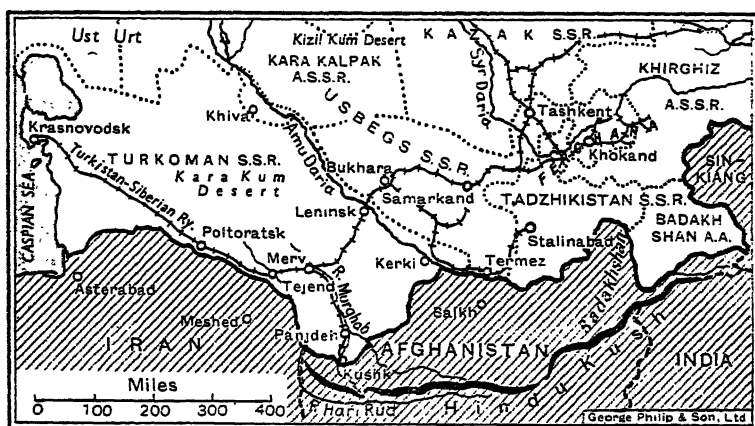


FIG. 7. Soviet Central Asia

Branches from Bukhara and Merv reach the Afghan frontier at Termez and Kushk respectively; motor communication has been established between Polterask and Meshed in Iran, and an air line connects Leninsk with Tashauz.

The Usbeks S.S.R. to the east of Turkmenistan is separated from Chinese Turkistan on the east by the Kirghiz autonomous republic. It has an area of over 66,000 square miles and a population of over 50 lakhs, of whom about 13 lakhs are urban. The Usbeks, who form the bulk of the population, were the ruling race in Central Asia, and Usbeg dynasties ruled over several states, such as Khiva and Bukhara, that arose on the fall of Tamerlane's empire. Tashkent is the capital and other important towns are Bukhara, Khiva,

Khokand, Andizhan, and Samarkand. Irrigation is very important and enables intensive agriculture to be carried on, and cotton growing has developed very well in recent years. The country includes a large part of the oval plain of Ferghana, where the melting snows furnish a sufficient water supply, so that the region is an important centre for cotton cultivation. The chief route from Samarkand to Kashgar over the Terek pass lies through this plain. This region is indeed the fairest of all the divisions of Central Asia and there is a certain amount of industrial development. Cotton spinning, oil production and coal mining are the chief industries, though a few textile mills and other industrial concerns for cement, paper and leather have also sprung up, while agricultural machinery is being produced at Tashkent. The total length of railway lines is over 1,100 miles, of which the main line connecting Central Asia with Russia is over 450 miles. The Siberian railway connects with Tashkent, and thence passes to Samarkand, Bukhara and to Turkmenistan at Leninsk. Branches serve important centres like Namangan and Andizhan on the Syr Daria and Kerki and Termez on the Turkoman and Afghan frontiers. The air line which serves the whole of Central Asia is very well developed in this country.

The Tadjik S.S.R. was originally an autonomous republic included in Usbegistan, but in 1929 it was admitted to the U.S.S.R. as a Soviet republic. It is a highland region south of Usbegistan and reaches eastwards to the Pamir plateau and Chinese Turkistan. It is under 56,000 square miles in area and has a population of a little over 13½ lakhs. The capital is Dushambe, now renamed Stalinabad. The people are mostly Tadjiks who speak a language very similar to Persian, and who are supposed to represent the original stock of the Aryans in their Central Asian homeland. Literacy has made great strides in recent years, the percentage going up to 60. The people are largely agriculturists who carry on cattle-breeding also. Irrigation from the Oxus is being developed for the growth of cotton in particular. The valley of Alai in the Pamir-Alai highlands is very well known for its pastures. Mineral resources are fairly important, some gold, oil and coal being mined, and also bismuth in the Adrasman region. Communications are fast being improved and the

little country is rapidly being provided with automobile roads. Communication between Stalinabad and the highland parts has been established by air, and the capital is connected by air with Termez and Kagan.

Kirghizia is an autonomous republic. It covers most of the old Semirechinsk province of Russian Turkistan and lies between the Tien Shan and Lake Balkhash. It is a mountainous region intersected by the Ily and commands the western approaches via the Zungarian Gate to Kuldja in Sinkiang. Originally a part of the Kazak republic, Kirghizia was reorganized into an autonomous republic with an area of about 76,000 square miles with a population of over 13 lakhs. **Kara Kalpak** with an area of under 50,000 square miles is largely made up of the desert of Kizil Kum enclosed between the Syr and Amu Daria. But the country is varied and it has several small mountains and grassy steppes, the chief being the Golodnaia steppe along the Syr Daria which is believed to have good prospects of development. The **Kazak republic** is a very large division with an area of over 1,000,000 square miles, with a population of about 68 lakhs. The chief feature of the country is the plateau of **Ust Urt** which rises about 600 feet above sea level and lies between the Caspian and Aral Seas. The melting snows and the rainfall in spring enable vegetation to grow, but these favourable conditions only last for a few months in the year.

Central Asia has an interest for Indians in the generally accepted fact that it was the homeland of the Aryan peoples who from this centre migrated in different directions and occupied large areas of the great Eurasian land mass. Their descendants colonized the New World too, at a later stage, so that they are the most important people on the earth in numbers and civilization. The branch that came to India over the Pamirs and the Paropamisus was from Tadzhikistan. Besides this ethnological affinity, India is acutely interested in this region on its north-western frontier. So long as relations between Great Britain and Soviet Russia are cordial, there is no cause for anxiety; but if these relations were strained, activities and developments in Central Asia would have to be very carefully watched by India. Prospects of trade developments between India and Central Asia are none too bright,

unless Afghanistan decides to construct railways and connect them with the Indian system on the one hand, and the Turkistan Siberian system on the other, at Termez.

3. IRAN

The Kingdom of Iran is the main part of the great plateau of Iran enclosed by the diverging mountain ranges between the Pamir and Armenian knots of the Asiatic mountain system. It has an area of more than 625,000 square miles, being thus a little larger than one-third of the Indian Empire and nearly three times as large as France.

The country is, however, very sparsely populated, the density being about 16 persons to the square mile. No regular census has been taken so far and the population is estimated to be about $1\frac{1}{4}$ crores. More than half the plateau is desert and about a quarter consists of almost treeless and uncultivable mountain ranges which, however, provide pasture in summer for the flocks of the nomads, who number about 30 lakhs. Though dense forests cover the northern slopes of the Elburz mountains and some parts of the southern slopes of the Zagros range, the insufficiency of the rainfall and the absence of large rivers make agriculture dependent upon irrigation which is based on melting snows from the mountains. The development of Iran largely depends on its irrigation. The Iranians were originally a nation of shepherds, hardy and warlike. They have neighbours more or less of the same type : the Caucasian tribes to the north-west, the Turkomans of Central Asia to the north-east, the Arabs to the west and south-west, and the Afghans and Baluchis to the east. The great desert has not been of any economic value to Iran, but as an effective natural barrier it has played a decisive part in its history. China found protection in the Gobi desert, Syria has been separated from Mesopotamia by the Arabian desert, Egypt's isolation is secured by the Arabian and Libyan deserts and Hellenic and Indian influences were kept apart by the Persian and Turkistan deserts. It is remarkable that in spite of such unfavourable environment, backward neighbours, lack of natural riches, insufficiency of arable lands, isolation by deserts and mountains, the Iranians have been a nation, from

very ancient times, with a civilization distinctly their own and with power which extended sometimes to the Nile, sometimes to the Indus, but often to the Tigris and always over Iran. In the sixth century B.C. Cyrus ruled over a vast Persian Empire stretching from the Aegean Sea to the Indus and the glories of Iran were revived under the Sassanian Kings from the third to the seventh centuries A.D. But the Arab conquest in the seventh century, and the Tatar and Mongol invasions thereafter, brought about the decline and fall of the splendour that was Iran. A perpetual struggle between the Iranian and the sturdier and nomadic Turanian then began. Today also, Iran remains open on the north and therefore has to deal with the power that controls the Eurasian steppes. The sea is a comparatively recent factor in determining the history of nations, and this makes the Persian Gulf and the power that dominates it important. Thus Iran is, today, most vitally concerned with British India and Russia in its career of renewed vigour and rapid development under its great leader Reza Shah Pahlevi.

The Persian Gulf region. The Persian Gulf is of peculiar interest to British India, since it formed an important strategic area for the defence of India against the ambitious designs of Germany and Turkey before the Great War.

In the south-eastern region of Iran lies Persian Baluchistan, which, though not as dry as the north-east, is almost unproductive. It consists of great belts of barren saline mud hills, and has no towns of any note or size. The coastal strip is as uninviting as the interior, and the Makran coast is only important as having at Jask a British cable station connecting it with Karachi. At the entrance to the Persian Gulf there is the port of Bunder Abbas guarded by the islands of Hormuz and Qishm. Bunder Abbas has a very evil reputation for heat and bad water, but has some strategic importance as a possible naval base, being on the Strait of Hormuz, the key to the Persian Gulf, and it serves in some measure as the outlet for the trade of Kerman and Yezd. The island of Hormuz has played an important part in history during the early struggles of the Europeans for supremacy in these waters, in the sixteenth century, when the Portuguese were ousted from this great entrepôt by the British. West of Hormuz is the

barren island of Qishm. The extremely bad climate prevents any naval base on either shore, and on the small island of Henjam to the south of it, the British had established a naval station, which was, however, abandoned in favour of Bahrein in 1935 to remove all causes of friction, since Iran is building up a navy of its own in the Gulf. Lingah, farther up the Gulf, is probably the prettiest port, but has not so far been developed. Between Lingah and Bushire is the barren island of Qais, which was very prosperous in the twelfth century, but was later on eclipsed by the rise of Hormuz. Bushire is the most important port on the Gulf. It is almost an island, being connected with the mainland by nine miles of almost impassable mud flats. Though important as an administrative capital, being the headquarters of the British Resident and foreign consuls, it is not very important commercially, though it is the chief outlet for the trade of Shiraz and, to some extent, also of Ispahan.

With the construction of railways in Iran, however, Bushire will lose its commercial importance, as trade will flow increasingly to the new Iranian port of Bundar-i-Shahpur. To the west of Bundar-i-Shahpur, there is the Shat-el-Arab, bringing the combined waters of the Euphrates and the Tigris to the Gulf and forming the frontier between Iraq and Iran. Abadan, the terminus of the pipe-line from the oil-fields of the Bakhtiari hills, stands out as a great industrial town with a maze of chimneys and throbbing with machinery in contrast to the dull inactivity of the region to the south: its population is about 40,000. Farther north, there is Mohammerah with a population of about 30,000. It is situated where the Karun empties itself into the Shat-el-Arab. The opening-up of the Karun river route has diverted the trade of Ispahan from Bushire via Shiraz to Muhammerah, which now possesses refineries for the oil obtained near Ahwaz. Ahwaz is a fairly large town, with a population of about 30,000, in the plain of Khuzistan (or, as it is also called, Arabistan), which is served by the southern section of the Caspian-Gulf railway from Bundar-i-Shahpur to Dizful, a distance of about 156 miles. Khuzistan is a part of the great Tigris lowland and is quite suitable for the production of high-grade American cotton.

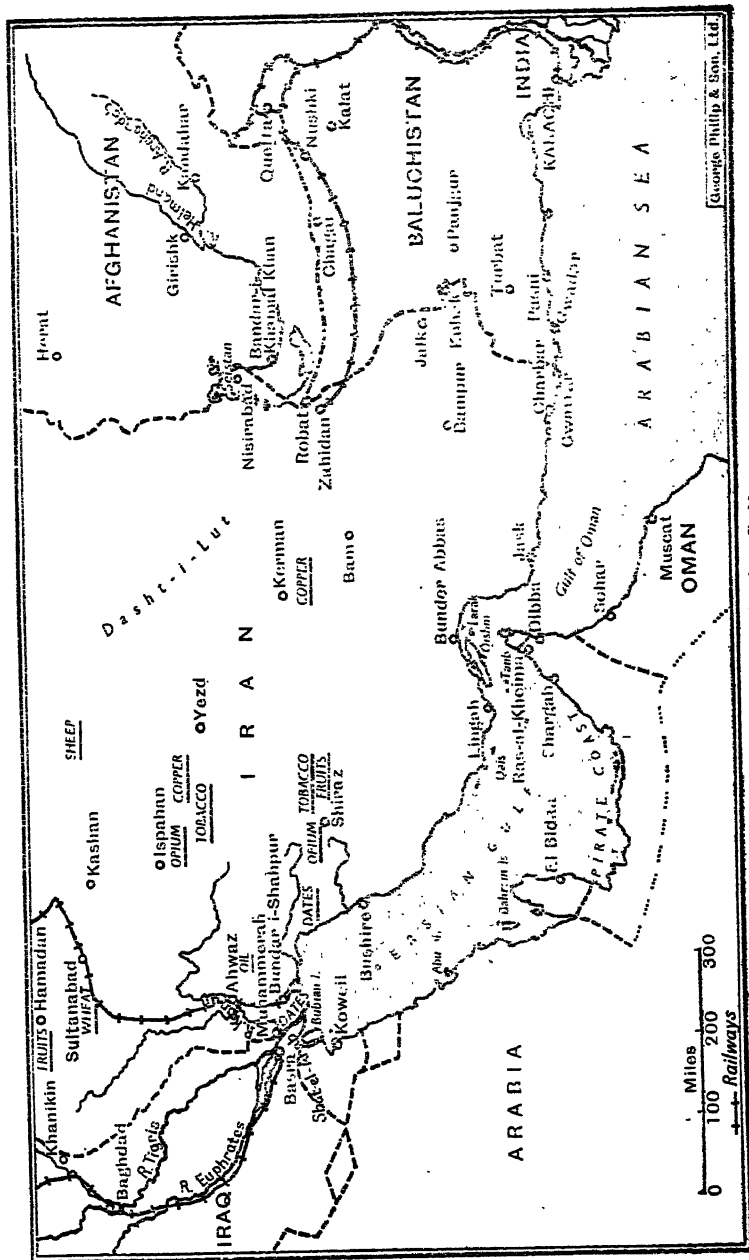


FIG. 8. The Persian Gulf

It would be of interest to have some idea of the Arabian shores of the Persian Gulf. Muscat, on the Gulf of Oman, is outside the Persian Gulf, with the politics of which, however, it has been intimately associated. Muscat is under a Sheikh who has accepted British protection, and it has considerable strategic importance because of its geographical position. The entrance to the Persian Gulf is guarded by Cape Musandum. After rounding this Cape, we pass the Pirate Coast which is controlled by the British Resident at Bushire. The commercial importance of the Pirate Coast is increasing with the rise of Debai to which has been transferred the entrepôt trade of Lingah. North of the Pirate Coast are the Bahrein Islands. The pearl fisheries of the Gulf are centred at Bahrein, which despite bad anchorage has a very large trade and which, with the transference of the British naval station from Henjam, will grow to greater importance. In the north-west corner of the Gulf is Koweit. It is not a good port, but its importance lies in its being the possible terminus of the Baghdad railway.

The Caspian littoral. The Elburz mountains are near enough to the Caspian Sea to leave only a narrow coastal tract, which is divided between the three provinces of Gilan, Mazanderan and Asterabad (or Tabaristan). The coast consists of swamps and forests and cultivated lands with luxuriant vegetation, and is edged by low sand hills impounding the stagnant waters of the mountains farther south.

The Caspian littoral is the finest and most productive of the lands of Iran. Rainfall is abundant, chiefly in winter, vegetation is luxuriant and large forest clearings have made agriculture possible, with the result that the population is much denser there than in other parts. Rice is the principal crop, while cotton though coarse and short-stapled, is becoming more important, particularly in Gilan. With the prevailing Mediterranean type of climate, fruit grows very well indeed and sericulture prospers, the bulk of the silk of Iran being produced in Gilan. Resht, the chief town of Gilan, is a large town on the Caspian with a population of about 80,000, while Babul (Barfrush)—also on the Caspian—is the chief town of Mazanderan with a population of about 30,000. Asterabad is the chief centre of Tabaristan, which has the advantage of

being served by the Caspian-Gulf railway starting from Bandar Shah.

The mountain regions. The Caspian littoral rises in a series of steps till the Elburz mountains are reached. This great mountain chain, attaining in its peak, Mount Demavend, a height of 18,600 feet, is a part of the great Asiatic mountain system, connecting up with the Armenian knot in the west and with the Pamir plateau, by its continuation in the Paropamisus. The Elburz chains stand out in rocky grandeur with snow-capped peaks and with dense impenetrable forests on the northern slopes.

Near the foot of Mount Demavend, which is an extinct volcano, stands Teheran, the capital of Iran. It has a population of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs and is the centre of the life and culture of modern Iran. The Caspian-Gulf railway passes through it and has added considerably to the strategic and commercial importance of the city.

The Zagros mountains start from Mount Ararat, the converging focus of mountain systems and of the countries of Turkey, Russia and Iran. They run in a series of parallel ranges south-eastwards, and die away in the limestone folds about Shiraz. They can be traced farther eastwards along the coastline of Iran and Baluchistan till they finally merge into the Kirthar range and thence into the Pamir plateau. The Zagros walls constitute a very striking feature of the configuration of western Iran. The greatest altitude is attained north-west of Kermanshah and in the Bakhtiari country to the west of Ispahan, where rises the chief river of Iran, the Karun. This river flows past Shushtar, and after receiving its tributary, the Diz, past Ahwaz, through the fertile plains of Khuzistan, and enters the Persian Gulf by a delta.

Ispahan, the principal town of this region, was once the capital of Persia, and even now is an important commercial city with a population of about 125,000, being a focus of many important trans-Iranian routes. Yezd, with a population of 30,000, is also important as a nodal town for caravan traffic.

The province of Fars occupies the centre of southern Iran and is, historically, the cradle of the Persian Empire, having the tomb of Cyrus and the ruins of Persepolis, the ancient capital of Darius and Xerxes. Shiraz is the chief town with

a population estimated at about 35,000, and it has been famous for its rose gardens, orchards, cypress ramparts and its wines. The great contrast in the scenery presented by the cultivated and irrigated areas on the one hand, and the barren plateau on the other, has even stirred the emotions of the poets, of whom Hafiz of Ispahan and Saadi of Shiraz are the most outstanding figures. South of Shiraz there is a series of limestone ranges, enclosing fertile valleys, which descend gradually to the sea coast.

Where the Zagros and the Elburz mountains meet in the confused and tangled mountains in the north-west of Iran is the province of Azerbaijan, with Tabriz as the most important centre of trade, with a population of about 2 lakhs. Being the frontier province, Azerbaijan is of great importance, since the Russian process of sovietizing can be more effectively worked from here than from the trans-Caspian regions through Khurasan. Lake Urumiya forms the centre of an inland drainage basin, the streams falling into it being utilized for irrigating the small plains. Among other important towns of the north-western area, mention must be made of Kazvin and Hamadan each with a population of about 30,000, both on the Caspian-Gulf railway.

Kavir. The great plateau of Iran known as the Kavir or Salt desert in the east lies just south of the Elburz mountains and occupies a large part of the interior and lies more than 3,000 feet high. The climate is very extreme, the temperature in summer going up to 140° and in winter falling below zero. The rainfall is scanty and falls chiefly in winter. The climate is sufficiently distinctive to be a type by itself, representative of conditions in the interior highlands of the sub-tropical region. Villages and towns are very few and are found on oases where water is available, while at the foot of low ranges, which are never very distant, lie salt marshes. The Kavir is often impassable except along the routes hardened by centuries of caravan traffic. It is about 800 miles long but the breadth varies, narrowing between Kerman and Seistan to some hundred miles.

People. One of the most remarkable features of the Iranians is that despite great ethnological and linguistic differences, the people of Iran have always had a real national

spirit and unity from the days of Cyrus. The Iranians represent a strange mixture of races. The original people are still found more or less pure on the Caspian littoral in Gilan and Mazanderan; but elsewhere Turanians and Nordic nomads from Eastern Russia replaced or assimilated them. The Arab conquest and the Mongol invasions of Chingiz Khan and Timur added fresh elements to the population. As a land of transit, Iran has always received a steady inflow of successful raiders and invaders, soldiers of fortune and mercenaries. In Luristan and Fars the leading tribes are of Arab, Kurdish or Turkish origin; Kurdish descent can be traced in the tribes of Khurasan; Kermanshah, Ispahan and Kerman have many Afghan and Baluchi families. The Ethiopian race, too, has left its mark on the Gulf coast, and thousands of dark-skinned peoples are found between Kermanshah and Kerman.

The mixture of races has made the Persians very adaptable and readily responsive to a change of environment. They make fine leaders; they are quick to observe and quick to learn; they enjoy comfort but ignore discomfort; they have a sense of humour and the gift of wit; they are hospitable and courteous and very well mannered; they have no caste distinctions or class cleavages; they are fatalistic, philosophic and religious; they are lovers of poetry and beauty; and yet they are as martial a people as any.

While Persian is the chief language of the country, Turkish, Arabic, Kurdish Luri and Brahui are also commonly spoken in different parts. Islam is the predominant religion and the Persians are mostly Shias, though the Sunnis are fairly numerous in Kurdistan and Azerbaijan and in Persian Baluchistan. Sufism had at one time a great hold on the leaders of thought in Iran, and Bahaism too had numerous followers. The Parsis, the small but important trading community in India, look upon Iran as their original homeland, and with growing modernization and development under Reza Shah Pahlevi, the idea of returning to Iran has been seriously considered. Their co-religionists in Iran are very few, numbering about 10,000. Besides these, it is of interest to note that about 4,000 Indians have settled in Iran for trading purposes, mostly in the Gulf region.

Products. Varied climate gives varied products to Iran.

Wheat and barley, millet and maize, are important food crops everywhere, but rice is largely grown on the Caspian littoral. Opium is a specially important product, being immune from the ravages of locusts, suitable for transport by pack animals and readily saleable; it provides the means of livelihood to perhaps a greater number of people than any other product. It is in great demand for home consumption as also for the manufacture of morphia and allied drugs and brings considerable revenue to Iran which is therefore not willing to restrict its production to meet the wishes of the Opium Conference. Tobacco of good quality is produced over a fairly extensive area, particularly on the Caspian shores. It is extensively consumed throughout the land and there is but little surplus for export. Sugar-cane is increasing in importance, for it grows well on the irrigated lands in the Karun basin in Khuzistan as also in Gilan and Mazanderan. Not enough sugar is being produced as yet, however, and large imports of sugar are a feature of the foreign trade of Iran. Many parts of the country satisfy the soil and climate requirements of cotton, the acreage under which has been increasing. The Iran climate eminently suits the production of tropical and sub-tropical fruit. Hot dry summers and cold winters and the absence of pests promote the dried fruit industry, which is assuming increasing importance. The *badam*, *pista* and dried figs have a good reputation and are exported in large quantities.

Persian wool is the basis of the manufacture of Persian carpets, which have a very wide reputation for quality and design. The principal centres of the industry are Tabriz, Hamadan, Sultanabad and Kerman, while Khurasan produces wool of a superior quality.

The mineral resources of Iran are not very great and have not been properly worked; iron, lead and copper occur extensively. Among precious stones, there are rubies and emeralds near Asterabad and Meshed and turquoises near Nishapur.

The mineral of the greatest importance, however, is oil, and the remarkable feature of the exploitation of the oil resources of Iran was the grant in 1901 to the Anglo-Persian Oil Company of concessions for a large area in south Iran,

the state charging a royalty of 16 per cent on the net profits. The principal oil-field is at Masjid Sulaiman, about 60 miles north of Ahwaz ; Abadan is the terminus of the pipe-line. The history of the petroleum industry has been one of continuous progress. The production in 1934 was over $7\frac{1}{2}$ million tons ; the royalties received by the state amounted to more than $1\frac{1}{4}$ million pounds sterling in 1930. The industry gives regular employment to several thousand Iranians, has introduced greater differentiation in the occupations of the people, has made motor transport possible and has given a great moral and intellectual stimulus in many branches of national life.

Foreign trade. One of the features of the foreign trade of Iran has been its vast growth since the beginning of this century. In 1901, the exports were about $2\frac{3}{4}$ million pounds sterling and the imports were about $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions. By 1907, these had gone up to $6\frac{1}{2}$ millions and 8 millions respectively. Exports increased faster than imports, and in 1935-6 were $22\frac{1}{2}$ millions as against imports of the total value of 17 millions. The currency has been placed on a gold standard since March 1932, and since February 1931 the Government has established a monopoly of foreign trade, operating through a system of import licences conditional on the export of an equivalent amount of home produce. The leading export is mineral oils, followed by carpets and rugs. Fruits, fresh and dried, cotton and opium are also important. On the import side, cotton manufactures and yarns take the first place, followed by sugar, machinery, motor cars and tea. Great Britain and Russia are the chief countries interested in the foreign trade of Iran, the former predominating in the export trade, the latter in the import trade. The Indo-Iranian trade is also considerable ; the imports from Iran, consisting chiefly of oil, dried fruits and wool, amounted in 1937-8 to about $2\frac{3}{4}$ crores of rupees, and the exports to Iran, being cotton manufactures, tea and sugar, amounted to about 75 lakhs.

Communications. The chief problem in the development of Iran is that of transport facilities. The country has so far less than 1,500 miles of railways. Tabriz is connected with the Armenian and therefore with the Russian railway system at Julfa, a distance of 85 miles, and a branch connects it with

Sharifkhaneh on Lake Urumiya. The Nushki-Zahidan railway of Baluchistan penetrates about 104 miles in Iran, but is not used. The Caspian-Gulf railway, completed in 1938, is the most important railway. Starting from Bandar Shāh on the Caspian Sea, the line crosses the Elburz mountains by the Firuz Kuh pass and goes to Teheran, and thence to Kazvin. From there it proceeds southwards through Hamadan, Dizful and Ahwaz to Bunder-i-Shahpur, the terminus on the Persian Gulf. The complete line is 866 miles long, and is a remarkable engineering feat. Iran has been provided with several main motor roads focusing at Teheran, the chief of which are to Tabriz; to Port Pahlevi on the Caspian via Kazvin and Resht; to Baghdad via Kazvin, Hamadan and Kermanshah; to Basra via Sultanabad, Burujird, Khurramabad, Dizful, Ahwaz and Muhammerah; to Bushire via Ispahan and Shiraz; to Bunder Abbas via Ispahan and Kerman; to Meshed; to Bandar Shāh on the Caspian; and to Zahidan via Meshed or Kerman. The Government is actively pushing forward its programme of road and rail construction and there has been a very rapid increase in the mileage of roads open to motor traffic, while aviation has also been actively encouraged.

Russia and Great Britain. In her foreign relations, Iran is concerned with two powers—Great Britain and Russia, whose rivalries and jealousies have always been sources of grave anxiety and danger. The Persian Gulf has been regarded as a frontier of India, and India cannot view with equanimity any European power such as Russia acquiring territorial or other concessions and extending its influence over central or southern Iran so as to reach the Gulf. The formation of the Triple Entente Cordiale between England, France and Russia made matters smooth and Iran was divided in 1907 into two spheres of influence—the Russian in the north from the Iraq frontier near Kermanshah to the Afghan frontier near Meshed via Ispahan and Yezd, and the British in the south from the Afghan frontier near Birjand to Bunder Abbas via Kerman. The intervening region was to be a neutral zone where neither Britain nor Russia was to obtain any concessions. The war of 1914-18 disturbed this arrangement and the British sphere was extended so as almost to include

the neutral zone. The Anglo-Persian Agreement of 1919 sought to regularize this, and under it Britain was to have extended military and political control and was to render financial assistance for railroads and other measures for economic development. The Agreement was, however, short-lived, for before its ratification by the Majlis, a new star appeared above the Persian horizon in the person of Reza Khan, who soon took over the reins of government. Reza Shah took steps forthwith to rid Iran of foreign advisers and influences, to reorganize the army, to set the finances in order with the help for a few years, of American advisers, and to make Iran a truly strong and independent state. The Anglo-Persian Oil Company's concession was suddenly terminated in 1932. But as the British Government was directly interested as a shareholder with considerable stakes both financial and strategic in the affair, it interfered, and the matter was referred to the League of Nations. Negotiations between the Company, the British Government and the Iran Government are going on smoothly and a complete understanding of all matters at issue will probably be reached.

Russian policy has at all times been a disturbing factor in Iran and has particularly been directed to the increasing of Russian political and commercial importance. From the north-west, Russian pressure has always been great, and the various agreements between Russia and Iran have been largely one-sided, giving a definite advantage to the trade with Russia, with resulting disadvantage to Great Britain, which has also considerable trade with the country from the Gulf. The Great War gave an opportunity to England, and the unratified Anglo-Persian Agreement of 1919 was the result. This probably leaned heavily the other way. But all previous agreements and concessions were dramatically cancelled by Iran in 1919. The Soviet Government continued to insist on reversion to the preferential tariff of 1903 and tried to bring pressure by the sudden prohibition of all imports from Iran in February 1926. The awkward situation was eased by the Agreement of October 1927, by which trade was resumed between the two countries on the basis of equivalence of exports and imports, but the commercial hold of Russia on Iran is as great as ever.

4. IRAQ

Iraq is a new sovereign Arab state which came into existence as a result of the World War. Prior to that, it was a province of Turkey and was known as Mesopotamia. It has great strategic importance to India as a barrier against aggression in the region of the Persian Gulf, whence the peace of India could be menaced. In this way, Iraq is a sort of frontier country for the defence of India. Though constituted as a sovereign Arab state, it was placed under Great Britain as a mandatory power. From 1928, however, the mandate was terminated by a treaty between Great Britain and Iraq, and the latter has since entered upon a career of peace and progress.

Iraq is largely the land between the two great rivers, the Euphrates and the Tigris, though it does include the highland region of Kurdistan and a desert strip on the west. It has an area of about 125,000 square miles and is a little smaller than the Central Provinces and Berar. The census of 1932 shows its population to be a little under 30 lakhs. The people are mostly Moslems—Arabs, Kurds and Turks, though there are also a few Christians and Jews. Arabic is the medium of instruction in schools, though Kurdish and Turkish are also important in Kurdistan and Turkoman areas. It is of interest to note that there is also a small Indian population numbering about 2,500. Iraq has a glorious history. In ancient times it was the seat of the Sumerian, Babylonian, Assyrian and Chaldean civilizations. On the plain, east of Mosul, are the ruins of Nineveh, the centre of the Assyrian Empire, while the Babylonian Empire developed in the lower plains south of Baghdad. The country remained prosperous till the Arab conquest in the seventh century A.D. Later on, it again attained to great prominence, prosperity and power, under the Abbasid Caliphs of whom Harun-ar-Rashid has been immortalized in the *Arabian Nights*. Dark days fell upon the country when the Ottoman Turks swept over it and pushed on to Constantinople. Under Turkish rule, the country became unproductive and backward, Baghdad and Basra retaining none of their one-time splendour and importance. Irrigation was neglected, and desolation came upon the land. The Euphrates, no longer controlled, spread out into marshes. Mesopotamia's strategic

importance for aggression in the Near and Middle East was, however, well realized by Germany, which cultivated good relations with Turkey, and the Berlin-Baghdad railway project was taken in hand under German technicians and German capital. The section from Scutari on the Bosphorus opposite Istanbul advanced to Aleppo, while the section from Basra on the Persian Gulf reached Baghdad. The Great War shattered the German dreams, but the construction of the railways was pushed on and today the Taurus Express thunders along the Turko-Syrian frontier up to Sabuniyah near Nisibin, while the railway has been pushed on farther northwards to Kirkuk. The gap of about 200 miles from Kirkuk to Nisibin is being rapidly bridged to connect the two sections and bring the Persian Gulf within easy reach by rail from Europe, via Anatolia and Iraq.

Physical features. In the north-east, there is the highland region of southern Kurdistan which consists of tangled mountains, attaining heights of over 10,000 feet towards the Iranian border. The slopes are often bare and barren, but provide pasture for the sheep and Angora goats which are reared in large numbers by the Kurds. The high Sulaimaniya plains close to the Iran border are fertile and are included in this region.

On the west, Iraq has a strip of the great Syrian desert, across which motor routes have, in recent years, been developed from Baghdad to Damascus and Jerusalem.

The rest of Iraq is practically the land enclosed between its two great rivers, the Euphrates and the Tigris. It can be divided into two regions, the Upper and the Lower. The Upper region is an undulating plain with low limestone hills, the Sinjar hills to the west of Mosul rising to 3,000 feet. The region is not very fertile, as the saline deposits mar the productivity of the soil. Cultivation is possible only in the valleys of the Euphrates, and the Tigris with its tributaries the Zab and the Little Zab which drain the Kurdistan Highlands. The Lower region is the most important region, a level low-lying plain stretching from a little north of Baghdad to the Persian Gulf. The alluvial soil renewed by the periodic flood waters of the rivers is very fertile and produces heavy crops of dates and rice. The climate tends to be malarious in the south, where there are numerous swamps and marshes.

The Euphrates and the Tigris are the most important features of Iraq and constitute the main arteries of trade and communication. The Euphrates has its source near Erzerum in the Armenian knot and, after a long and tortuous course through Turkey and Syria, enters Iraq at Abu Kemal, a little

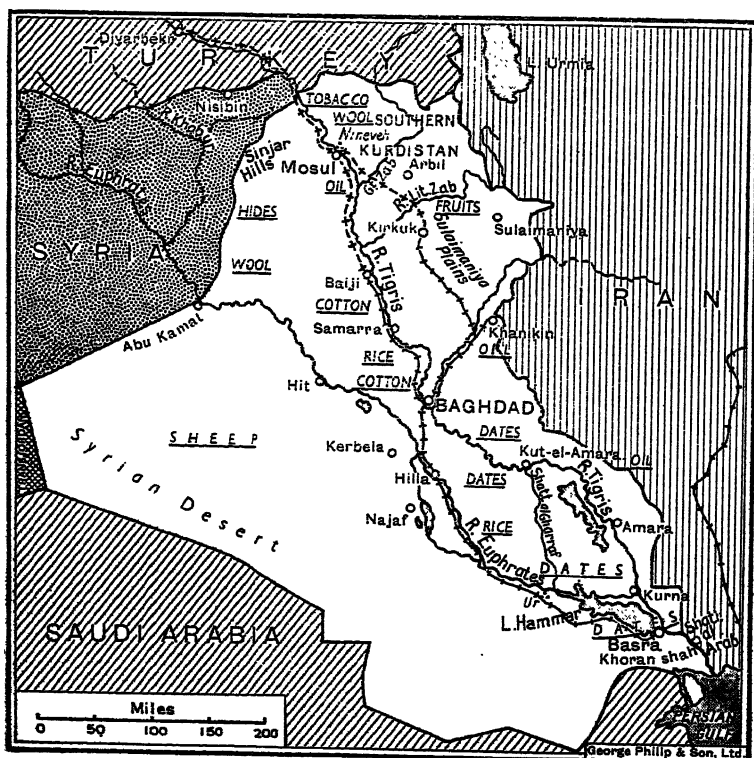


FIG. 9. Iraq

below its confluence with the Khabur. The country has a gradual fall in elevation from the spurs of the Taurus range to Hit, below which an unbroken plain extends to the Persian Gulf. The Tigris meets the Euphrates at Kurna and the combined streams make the Shat-el-Arab, which forms a delta from Khoranshah to the south of Basra. The Tigris is the shorter but swifter and more useful river. It is more than 1,100 miles long and receives the drainage of the

Kurdistan mountains. It winds its way, past Mosul, near which was Nineveh the capital of ancient Assyria, to Baghdad where it is only about 50 miles from the Euphrates. The two rivers flow apart and the distance between them is increased, till they converge to meet at Kurna.

Products. While Iraq had a brilliant past, it has a bright future also. The soil is fertile. The climate is of the Mediterranean type with dry summers and wet winters. The scanty rainfall, however, is insufficient for agriculture, and the productivity of the land is dependent upon the development of irrigation by canals or pumps. The ancient irrigation works are no longer of any use because of the neglect of centuries. New works are being constructed and the area irrigated by pump irrigation has already reached a million acres. The chief products are dates, cotton and wool; wheat and barley are the chief cereals, grown as winter crops, particularly in upper Iraq. Dates grow well in the Shat-el-Arab area with its tidal irrigation, Basra being the chief collecting centre of the industry, and they form the staple food of the Arabs. Wool is obtained from sheep fed on the pastures of the northern highlands of Kurdistan, where the Angora goats also are reared, while cotton of good quality is being grown on an increasing acreage in the area between the Euphrates and the Tigris.

Among the minerals, oil is the most important. There are considerable oil resources in the Mosul vilayet which are being explored by a British company; the Iraq Petroleum Company, an international concern, is exploiting the oil-field at Kirkuk; while the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company is working the Khanikin oil-field near the borders of Iran. The great importance of mineral oil for military, naval and industrial purposes has led to a scramble for the control of oil resources by the great powers of the world. The United States of America and Russia are rich in oil. Great Britain has not great oil resources within her empire, and Iraq is therefore of great value to her, as a possible petroleum-producer on a large scale under British direction and with British finance.

Commerce. After the Great War, Iraq had a rupee currency; but the rupee was displaced in 1932 by the Iraqi **dinar**, equal to a pound sterling. In 1937 the exports amounted to 3·5 million Iraqi dinars and the imports to 7 million Iraqi

dinars. Cotton piecegoods, metals and ores, sugar, motor vehicles, machinery, woollen manufactures and tea were the principal items on the import side, while the exports chiefly consisted of dates, barley and wheat, and wool. Great Britain is the chief country interested in the Iraqi trade. The Indo-Iraqi trade is also fairly considerable, the exports to and imports from India in 1937-8 being about 50 and 76 lakhs of rupees respectively. The chief Indian exports to Iraq are jute and cotton manufactures, tea and coffee, while the chief imports from Iraq are dates, grain and wool.

In addition to the regular trade, there is also an extremely important transit trade through Iraq. This transit trade is largely to and from Iran, as can be expected from the situation of Iraq in relation to Iran, and the main lines of communications by rail, river and road. The developments in recent years of the Russo-Iran trade, however, have led to a definite shrinkage in the transit trade of Iraq. The completion of the Iranian Caspian Gulf railway will similarly reduce the volume of Iraq's transit trade.

The possibilities of the development of Indian trade with Iraq are undoubtedly great. Iraq is practically shut off from the west and the north because of the heavy transport charges across the desert and the mountains. The small population of Iraq does not offer a very large market for Indian products, but rapid industrial development in India should afford good scope for exports of cotton piecegoods to Iraq. The Government of India sent out a trade mission to the Near East in 1928, but no very active steps seem to have been taken since then for the development of our trade with Iraq.

The principal towns of Iraq are Baghdad, Mosul and Basra, with a population of about 250,000, 80,000 and 50,000 respectively. Basra, important for its trade in dates, is the chief port, and is situated on the right bank of the Shat-el-Arab. It has developed into a modern town since the War. Baghdad, the capital, is situated on the Tigris about 500 miles by river and about 350 miles by railway from Basra. It largely retains its oriental character, but is cosmopolitan, and the Jewish and Syrian elements figure largely in the commercial community of the city. Mosul is situated on the Tigris, over

200 miles in a north-westerly direction from Baghdad and will, at a not far distant date, be connected by rail with Baghdad. Nejef and Kerbela are small places but are important as the holy places of Islam, being the burial places of Ali and Hussein, to which large pilgrim caravans from Iran bring crowds of Shia pilgrims.

Communications. Reference has already been made to the main Iraqi railway line, about 350 miles long, from Basra to Baghdad. A wagon ferry across the Tigris connects this line with another which proceeds to Kirkuk, about 200 miles from Baghdad, a branch line taking off to Khanikin on the Iraq-Iran frontier, where oil is being worked. These are all metre-gauge lines. A standard-gauge line proceeds on the right bank of the Tigris to Baiji (132 miles), whence it is hoped to continue the line to Mosul. Passengers from India can book direct to Europe via the Iraqi railways, the gap of 240 miles between Kirkuk and Nisibin, the Syrian railhead, being served by a fleet of Rolls-Royce saloon cars operated by the railway administration. Nearly 5,000 miles of good roads have been constructed since the Great War. An important road serves the Iraq-Iran trade connecting Erbil on the Kirkuk-Mosul road to the Iran frontier and thence to Tabriz, Kazvin and Hamadan.

5. THE ARABIAN COAST

Arabia is a great desert country with an area of about 1,000,000 square miles, and is peopled by nomadic tribes engaged in pastoral occupations, the rearing of sheep, goats and camels. The population is very sparse, being estimated at about 1 crore. The country is bounded on the north by Iraq and Trans-Jordan, but on the other sides it is isolated by the sea, the Red Sea on the west, the Arabian Sea on the south, the Persian Gulf on the east and the Gulf of Oman on the south-east.

Arabia is a great plateau sloping from the western mountain barrier on the Red Sea side to sea level on the Persian Gulf, with the relief varied in the south-east by the mountains of the Oman district, and in the south-west by mountainous Yemen. Except in these two tracts, there is almost no rainfall, and the country is a barren desert waste

with scattered oases here and there. The patriarchal tribal organization of the Bedouin has weakened steadily before the development in modern times of an Arab nationalist spirit in Syria, Palestine and Iraq and before the rise to power of Ibn Saud, the King of the Hejaz, who was the central figure of the great Wahabi revival and who organized the nomadic Bedouins into civic communities. The Great War led to the ejection of the Turks, the previous masters of Arabia, and civil wars and strife have led ultimately to the whole country passing under the rule of Ibn Saud, excepting the states of Yemen and Oman which are more or less under British protection. These non-Saudi parts of Arabia which were within the limits of Indian influence are of interest to us.

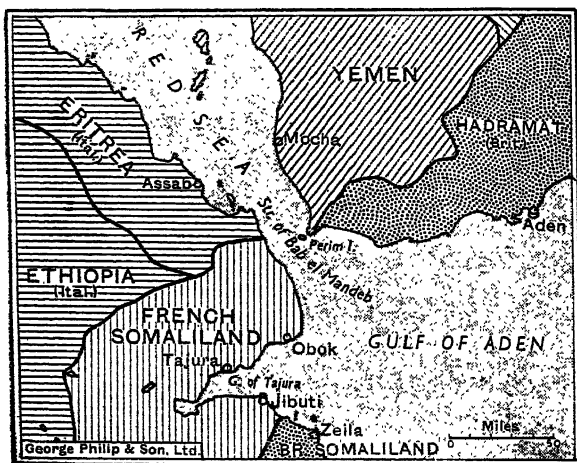


FIG. 10. Strait of Bab el Mandeb

Yemen. This is a state in the south-western corner of Arabia with an area of about 75,000 square miles and a population of about 35 lakhs. It was recognized by India as an independent kingdom by the treaty of February 1934. Sana is the capital. North of this is the region of Al Jauf and several large Imamic towns, all watered by the Kharid. This mountain state produces barley, wheat and millet; but it is largely known for its coffee, which from the point of view of quality is unsurpassed. The coffee known as Mocha coffee

is grown on the southern slopes, which receive monsoon rains, and where the rising mists afford the plants good protection from the heat. The chief ports are Mocha, Hodeida and Luhaiya. The importance of Yemen to India is more strategic than commercial. It commands the southern part of the Red Sea, and guards the exit from that sea at the Straits of Bab el Mandeb. Italy has, in recent years, been considerably strengthening her position at this point which controls the Far Eastern trade routes between Europe and Southern and Eastern Asia. Eritrea and Italian Somaliland are now welded together by the Italian conquest of Abyssinia and Italy's growing influence over Yemen gives her a very menacing position in this region, challenging the British and French controls at Aden and Jibuti. As a result of the recent Anglo-Italian Pact, the spheres of influence in the Red Sea and Arabia of these two nations will be clearly defined.

Aden. This is an extinct volcano on the south-western coast of Arabia about 100 miles from the Strait of Bab el Mandeb. The volcano juts out into the sea like Gibraltar and is connected by a narrow isthmus with the mainland, the crater being 1,725 feet above sea level. The little peninsula of Little Aden and the adjoining tracts of Sheikh Othman are both attached to the Settlement of Aden. The small island of Perim, 5 square miles in area, in the Straits at the entrance to the Red Sea also belongs to the British, and is included in the Settlement which thus totals about 80 square miles. To the Settlement is also attached the small island of Kamaran in the Red Sea, conquered by the British in 1915. The population of the Settlement is about 50,000 and is chiefly Arab, though there is a large number of Indians who have settled there for purposes of trade. The chief industries of Aden are salt and cigarette manufacture and the building of dhows. An important problem is a sufficient supply of drinking water, and it has recently been solved by boring artesian wells, so that bore water has practically replaced distilled water.

The range of temperature from summer to winter is 98° F. to 75° F., the heat in the interval between the monsoons in May and September being oppressive. The rainfall is scanty and uncertain.

Aden was for a long time under the Government of

Bombay; but the progressive establishment of responsible Government in India and the great strategical importance of Aden made it necessary to place it, from 1932, under a Chief Commissioner under the direct control of the Government of India for general administrative purposes, and under the British Colonial Office for military and political purposes. Under the Government of India Act, 1935, the dual control

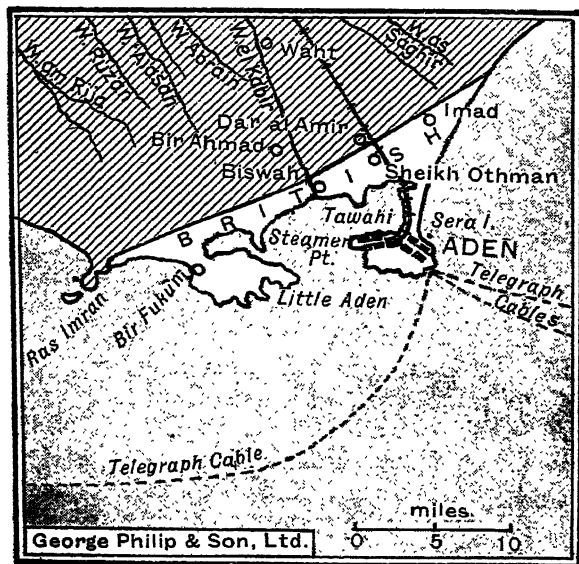


FIG. II. Aden

was abolished and Aden is now administered directly by the Colonial Office.

The **Aden Protectorate**, about 42,000 square miles in area, lies east, north and west of Aden, and is ruled by Arab chiefs in treaty relations with the British Government. The boundaries between the Protectorate and Yemen have been fixed by the treaty of Sana in 1934, from Sheikh Murad opposite Perim Island to Bana river and thence north-east to the great desert. The Protectorate extends eastwards and includes the Hadramat and the territories of the Sultan of Qishn bordering upon the Gulf of Oman. The Hadramat is a large tract of fertile valleys under a Sultan. The Sultan of Qishn is also

he ruler of Socotra, a small island, about 1,500 square miles in area lying off Cape Guardafui. It has a population of 12,000, mostly pastoral in the interior and fishing on the coast. Socotra is linked to the mainland by some smaller islands and is geographically and geologically a part of Somaliland. Most of the island is a plateau, a few peaks rising to over 4,000 feet. The Aden Protectorate is administered by the Resident of Aden on behalf of the British Colonial Office.

The **Kuria Muria Islands** are no longer attached to Aden but were transferred in 1931 to the control of the Persian Gulf Residency.

The **Bahrein Islands** are an archipelago in the Persian Gulf off El Hasa on the Arabian coast. The chief islands are Bahrein, Muharraq, Sitra, and Nebi Saleh. They are low-lying. The total population is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ lakhs, and in Manama, the capital, there is a wealthy Persian community and a number of Indian merchants. Bahrein is known as the centre of the famous pearl-fisheries of the Persian Gulf and is visited by numerous Arabs and other people. Over 500 boats and 15,000 divers are busy during the summer months. Bahrein is also the outlet for the trade of Nejd and Hasa, and is served by the British India Steam Navigation Company's Gulf boats and by the Imperial Airways. Petroleum has recently been discovered in Bahrein, and it is being rapidly exploited by an American company, so that petroleum is now the most important product and export of the islands.

Oman. This is an independent Sultanate with its capital at Muscat. It extends for about 900 miles along the coast from the Sultanate of Qishn to Hasa, the north-eastern strip being under the minor chiefs of Trucial Oman, who are more or less under the protection of the British Government. Inland it is bordered by the great desert. The interior is mountainous and arid, but the coastal tracts north-west of Muscat, known as the Batinah coast, are fertile and prosperous with date groves extending for over 100 miles. The Omanis are virtually autonomous, and once were more important. Today the only remnant of their overseas possessions is the little region round about Gwadar on the Makran coast of Baluchistan. Muscat itself, once important and flourishing, is now giving way to the rising port of Matrah. The population is about

5 lakhs, and in Muscat and Matrah the people are all Baluchis and Negroes. Trade is largely in the hands of Indians, and is largely with India, the exports to India in 1937-8 being 24 lakhs of rupees and the imports from India being 36 lakhs. The chief imports are rice, coffee and sugar, and the chief exports are dates, pomegranates, fresh and dried limes and dried fish. Muscat is served by the Bombay-Basra line of steamers.

Koweit. This is another independent state on the north-western shores of the Persian Gulf. It is important solely as the possible terminus of the Euphrates valley or Baghdad railway. The population is about 50,000.

The significance for India of these coastal tracts of Arabia from Yemen to Koweit, lies not only in their trade with India, which has been responsible for a large number of Indian settlers, but more particularly in the great strategic importance of the southern coast, along which passes the great Far Eastern trade route ; and in the Gulf coast, which derives its importance from the interest that India has in the Persian Gulf, Iran and Iraq. With the growing importance of India as a self-governing dominion, it is desirable to maintain a closer contact with, and control of, these lands that form our border-lands on the northern shores of the Indian Ocean, the ocean which so largely defines the extent of the Indian sphere of influence.

CHAPTER II

NORTHERN BORDERS

1. NEPAL

NEPAL is a small but independent Himalayan kingdom. Its greatest length is about 500 miles and its greatest breadth about 150 miles. It is of great interest from several points of view. It is the only sovereign state under a Hindu king ; it is the home of the Gurkhas, a Mongolian race with Hindu admixture, which has been famous for its great fighting qualities ; it is the recruiting ground for the Gurkha infantry of the Indian army ; and it is the main Indian outpost against Tibetan aggression or against Chinese aggression through Tibet.

The present king is His Majesty Maharajadhiraj Tribhubana Bir Bikram Jung Bahadur, of the Sisodia Rajput clan, who came to the throne in 1911. The king is a dignified figure-head, like the Mikado in the days of the Shogunate in Japan, and like the Maratha King under the Peshwas. The real power is in the hands of the Prime Minister who is the head of the most powerful of the military tribes of Nepal. The present Prime Minister is His Highness Maharaj Bhim Shum Shere Jung Bahadur Rana who assumed power in 1929.

Nepal is a narrow tract of land along the southern slopes of the central axis of the Himalayas and is largely mountainous. The southern slopes are cultivated, but above these the rugged wall rises up to lofty snow-capped peaks, of which the best known are Mount Everest, Kinchinjunga and Dhawalgiri.

The real Nepal is a valley enclosed between four passes in the Himalayas, the Saga pass in the east, the Phar Ping pass in the south, the Panch Mane in the west and the Pati pass in the north. The rivers all drain to the Ganges basin and the chief of these are the Kosi system in the east, the Sapt Gandakis (forming the Gandak) in the centre and the Karnali system in the west.

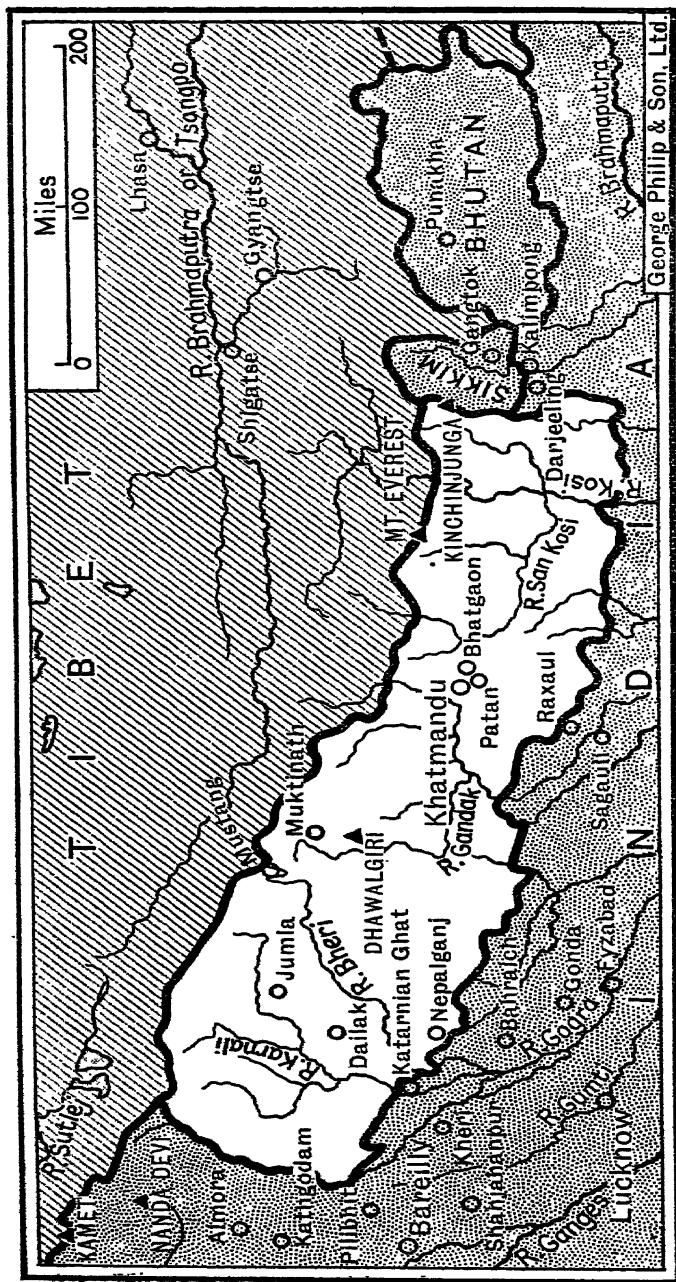


Fig. 12. Nepal

Before the Gurkha conquest under Prithi Narayan Shah in the latter half of the 18th century, the country was split up into several small mountain kingdoms under the Newar kings who originally came from south India. The Gurkha occupation under their Hindu Rajput kings unified the whole land. The military oligarchical form of government was introduced in 1867 when the king was forced to delegate his powers to the Rana family, the head of which assumes the office of Prime Minister and supreme Commander-in-Chief. Indian history records only one war with Nepal, in 1814. It ended with the Treaty of Sagauli, by which British India and Nepal maintained an envoy at each other's Court. Since then the relations between the two countries have been extremely cordial. The Tibeto-Nepal War of 1854 added much to the prestige of this little mountain kingdom, which as a result of it, was to receive Rs. 10,000 every year from Tibet. During the Great War, the Government of Nepal continued to be extremely friendly and assisted Great Britain with men and money, which assistance is gratefully acknowledged by Great Britain which has promised to pay Rs. 10,00,000 every year to Nepal in perpetuity. A new treaty between these two countries was signed in 1923, which reaffirmed the internal and external independence of Nepal. From 1934, the British Envoy at the Court of Khatmandu was raised to the position of the Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, and Nepal sent its Minister Plenipotentiary to the Court of St James in London.

The area of Nepal is about 54,000 square miles ; its population is about 56 lakhs. The people are largely hillmen of Mongolian origin, but with an admixture of Hindu blood. Of these the Gurkhas are the most prominent and dominating. Besides these, there are people of Tatar stock, like the Magars and the Bhotias, and people of South Indian origin, the Newars. Buddhism is the religion of the earlier people ; but since the Gurkha occupation, Hinduism of an early type is gaining in importance, and has now become the chief religion of the country.

A campaign of reclamation of forest areas on the hillsides and in the Terai, the low-lying lands near the foothills, is adding to the area under cultivation. The chief products of the lowlands are rice, wheat and maize, while on the

mountain slopes, the thick forests yield valuable woods, gums, resins and dyes. The great obstacle to development is the lack of modern means of communication and transport. In 1927, the first railway into Nepal was constructed from Raxaul on the Bengal and North-Western railway system to Amlekganj whence a good motor road takes one to Bhim-pedhi. A ropeway from Dhursing into the Khatmandu valley facilitates the movement of goods. Mineral resources, which are supposed to be great, await improvement in transport facilities for their proper exploitation.

The chief town is Khatmandu with a population of about 80,000.

2. TIBET

Tibet, the highest inhabited region of the world, is enclosed between the Himalayas and the Kunlun mountains and extends eastwards to the Chinese provinces of Kansu and Szechwan. Its area is more than 450,000 square miles. It is larger than the combined areas of France, Switzerland, Belgium, the Netherlands, Denmark and Germany¹ and is about the same size as the Punjab, United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, Bengal and Assam. The population is, however, very sparse, being estimated at about $7\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs. Tibet interests us as it is our neighbour on the north, and there are possibilities of the development of our trade. It has been a dependency of China, and opens up a route to southern and central China. The long drawn out struggle between Russian and British influence in Central Asia has also had its repercussions in Tibet, so that India is interested in maintaining a friendly Tibet within the sphere of Indian influence, free from Russian designs and even from Chinese suzerainty. The Tibetans themselves were often aggressive and obstructive, and the convention of 1890 between Great Britain and China paved the way for better relations with Tibet. China recognized an Indian protectorate over Sikkim and promised to open a trade centre at Yatung in Tibetan territory for the trade with India. But the Dalai Lama, the spiritual and temporal head of the Tibetan Government, was inclined to favour the Russians and in 1901 was reported to have concluded a treaty with Russia

¹ 1919 frontiers.

virtually accepting a Russian protectorate over Tibet. In 1904, under Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty, steps were taken to meet the situation, and a trade mission, with an armed escort, under Col. Sir Francis Younghusband, marched to Lhasa and forced the Tibetan authorities to sign a convention by which Tibet agreed to respect the Indo-Chinese convention of 1890, and to open trade centres at Gyangtse, Gartok and Yatung on the Tibetan side of the Sikkim frontier. This convention was ratified by the convention with China in 1906. Relations between Great Britain and Russia were improved by the Anglo-Russian Agreement of 1907. Russian intrigues ceased, and the British proceeded to establish their influence in the country. Chinese suzerainty, which was long a constitutional fiction, was now asserted, and China proceeded to convert Tibet from a vassal state into a province. The Dalai Lama sought refuge in Urga and later on in India. The Chinese Revolution ushered in a new phase and the Chinese Government had to accept the autonomy of Tibet, and in 1918 the last vestiges of Chinese suzerainty were thrown off by the Tibetans. During the last twenty years Tibet has been virtually a British Indian protectorate.

Tibet is still largely a land which is unknown, unexplored, unexploited and undeveloped. Suspicious of foreigners, isolated by high mountain walls, extremely exclusive, wrapped in their Buddhist faith, the people remain content in their simplicity and backwardness, and are untouched by the complexities of modern civilization. The head of the Government is the Dalai Lama, whose palace, the Potala, is at Lhasa, the administrative headquarters of the country. The Tashi Lama, a grade lower in status, resides at Shigatse, farther west, just south of the Brahmaputra. The Dalai Lama is supposed never really to die but merely to change his body, so that when death does overtake him, the monks institute a close search to find an infant in whose body the Dalai Lama becomes again incarnate. This process creates a period of regency or minority administration, which is welcomed by the Chief Ministers. Religion plays a very important part in the life of the people. About one-third of the entire population is connected in some way or other with religious ceremonies and observances, and resides in monasteries known as

lamaseries, sometimes as large as small towns. These priests or lamas live on the earnings of the rest of the population, on whom they are a great burden.

The people are very religious; they believe in repeating prayers as often as possible; and for this purpose they hang, from the houses, flags, on which prayers are printed, or hoist them over their roofs. They also turn by hand, by wind or by water power, prayer-wheels, which are contrivances containing rolls of paper on which the prayers are printed, which

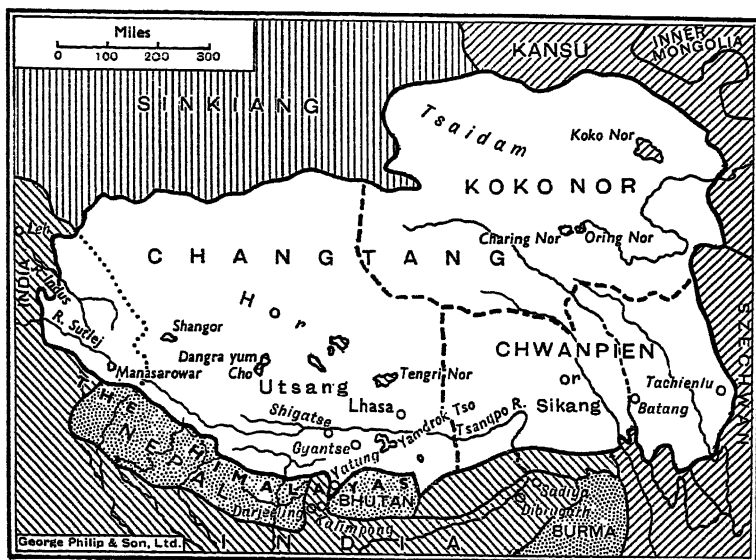


FIG. 13. Tibet

are constantly wound and unwound. This idea is reminiscent of the custom of the holy men of the Hindus and the Muslims, of almost constantly turning the beads of their rosaries in their hands.

The great plateau of Tibet has an average elevation of 12,000 feet and is almost inaccessible. It is a barren plateau with numerous salt lakes scattered over the surface. It consists of extensive plains in the west and north-east, while in the east and south-east, there are the complicated mountain systems that separate it from the Chinese provinces. The

mountain systems generally trend southwards, and through the parallel inaccessible gorges run the head waters, sometimes separated by hardly fifteen miles, of the great rivers of Indo-China and China, the Hwang Ho, the Yangtze Kiang, the Salween and the Mekong. On the south, Tibet is bounded by the mighty Himalayas which tower over the plateau as high as the Alps do above sea level. Among the great lakes may be mentioned the Koko Nor in the north-east, Tengri Nor north of Lhasa, Charing Nor near the head waters of the

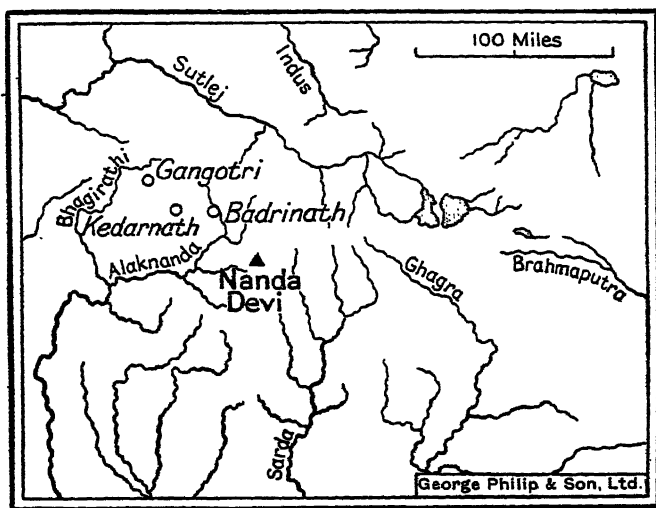


FIG. 14. Manasarowar

Hwang Ho, Yamdok Tso to the south of Lhasa, and what interests us more, Manasarowar from which issue, in opposite directions, the two great Indian rivers, the Indus and the Tsangpo (the Brahmaputra), which enter the plains of India some 2,000 miles apart. The bulk of the population is found in the valley of the Tsangpo, the northern part being largely uninhabited. The climate is generally very extreme, owing to the great altitude, and fierce winds which sweep across the country and severe snowstorms in winter intensify the inclemency of the climate. Exposure to the cold, dust, wind and glare of the sun give a characteristic appearance to the people, whose faces appear wrinkled and seamed.

The great plateau is bleak, barren and unproductive except in the sheltered valleys of the south where some agriculture is possible, and wheat, barley and peas are grown. Pastoral occupations are, however, more prominent. Wool is an important product, particularly the **pashm** or the under-fleece of the Tibetan goat. Rhubarb raised on the rocky little farms and musk obtained from the musk-deer form very special products of this mysterious and holy land. The most important and peculiar animal of the country is the **yak**, a hairy bull, reminding one of the sacred Nandi of Shiva, one of the Hindu Triad supposed to reside on Mount Kailas. The yak yields milk, flesh for food, and hair for clothing, and is most useful as a beast of burden on the most difficult and inaccessible mountain paths. The mineral wealth of Tibet is believed to be considerable, but so far only some gold and salt have been worked.

Tibet falls into four physical regions. The **northern plains**, from the Kunlun in the north to the Brahmaputra valley in the south are known as Chang Tang. Treeless, unpopulated, bleak, dotted with lakes, the Chang Tang is a formidable barrier against intercourse and communication in Central Asia. The **southern plains** consist of the valleys of the Indus and Sutlej and the Brahmaputra, and constitute Tibet proper; they are much more populated and better cultivated than the northern plains. **Eastern Tibet** is not wholly controlled by the Dalai Lama; it is a highland region and is divided into a number of states, which are partly under Chinese influence, and the region is often regarded as the Chinese province of Sikang, with its capital at Baanfu. The country is rich in minerals and capable of development. The Salween, Mekong and the Yangtze Kiang have their origin in the eastern slopes of the Chang Tang but flow down parallel gorges through Sikang. The **north-eastern region** consists of the Tsaidam swamps and the Koko Nor basin.

The inaccessibility of Tibet is due to the routes being across very lofty and difficult passes in the mountain girdle. The most important route is the well-known **tea route** by Tachienlu, on the south-eastern border, where the brick-tea coming from China, partly by boat, over the Yangtze Kiang, and partly on the backs of coolies, carrying a load of about

200 lb. each, is transferred to yaks and ponies. Another important route from China is the valley of the Wei-ho, a tributary of the Hwang Ho by Lanchow and Si-ning. Both routes meet at Lhasa. From Lhasa an important route goes westwards to Leh and Srinagar in Kashmir. From this main westward route, routes branch off to Nepal, and also by the Shipki pass and the Sutlej valley to India. Leh is a great centre for trade and is the meeting place for caravans from the east and the west. Traders from Tibet, India, Bukhara, Turkistan and even from distant Mongolia and China gather here in large numbers in the short summers when the mountain passes are open. The most important trade route to India is from Lhasa via the Chumbi valley to Kalimpong in Sikkim.

Lhasa is the capital and the most important town. It has often been called the Holy City or the Mysterious City. It is no longer mysterious and travellers may visit the city and the sacred temple and even the Potala; the mystery and the consequent charm have disappeared; but Lhasa remains as sacred to the Buddhists as Jerusalem to the Christians and the Jews, or Mecca to the Mohammedans. Lhasa is situated on a small plain and the approach to it is through a pleasant country. The Potala, being the palace of the Dalai Lama, is the most sacred spot of the Buddhists and presents a very striking view from a distance, surrounded by fortifications, temples and monasteries. In the centre of the city is the great temple, the goal of thousands of Buddhists pilgrims. Shigatse and Gyantse are other important towns.

3. SINKIANG

Sinkiang is the name given to all the lands under Chinese control between Mongolia in the north and Tibet in the south. It therefore comprises Kashgaria, which is largely the Tarim basin; Chinese or Eastern Turkistan, enclosed between the Tien Shan and the Kunlun mountains and Zungaria enclosed between the Tien Shan and the Altai mountains. It is now constituted into a separate province, under a Governor who has his headquarters at Urumchi (or Tihwafu) in the Tien Shan region between the two principal divisions. The area is about

550,000 square miles and the population is about 12 lakhs, too small and scattered for such a vast area. There are a great many Turki races, like the Kashgari, Kalmuk, Kirghiz and Taranchin, and the number of the Chinese has been growing recently.

In Kashgaria the population is settled on the oases on the river banks, the rivers draining inland and forming basins shut off by the Pamir plateau and the great mountain systems radiating therefrom. The rivers dry up before reaching the main river, the Tarim, but are useful for irrigating the oases in the desert region. The Tarim flows along the north of the desert and loses itself in Lob Nor, which is over 2,000 feet above sea level. The interior of the Tarim basin is a series of sand-dunes, which in their slow westward movement cause much damage. The country is not yet sufficiently well known and we owe much of our knowledge of the land to the explorations of Sir Aurel Stein and Dr Sven Hedin. Two important routes across the Pamirs connect this basin with the Oxus region, and were important means of communication in ancient times for trade between China and Central Asia and thence to Europe. The southern route passes up the valley of the Oxus to Kashgar and Yarkand through Sarigol, while the northern route is the more important, opening from Balkh to Kashgar via the Terek pass across the Pamirs. Kashgar is the most important town, situated on the river of the same name which forms one of the head streams of the Tarim. It has been the chief administrative and commercial centre of the basin, and routes from China to the west across the Pamirs were focused at Kashgar. Yarkand is another nodal town, being the centre of trade with Kashmir and India via the Karakoram pass, and it rivals Kashgar in wealth, population and importance. Khotan is another important oasis in the southern part of the Tarim basin. There is now no regular trade route in this region, but besides Khotan, there are two other oases of some note, those of Keriya and Cherchen. The chief caravan route to the east starts from Kashgar and passing by the oases of Kalpir, Aqsu, Kucha, and Kara-shahr, reaches Turfan, where it meets the great caravan route from Lanchow in China. From Turfan the route passes to Urumchi, the capital of Sinkiang, and thence to Kuldja in the fertile valley

of the Ili. Zungaria is a lower plateau between the Tien Shan and Altai where the small streams lose themselves in lakes and marshes. It has some good pasture land here and there. There are two chief routes out of this plateau, one by the Zungarian Gate to Lake Balkhash and the other by the Irtysh to Semipalatinsk. Communication between Zungaria and Kashgaria is possible through the Musart pass across the Tien Shan.



FIG. 15. Sinkiang

The whole country is a high arid plateau, punctuated with fertile oases at the opening of the mountain valleys, where irrigation is possible. The oases about 4,000 feet high produce cereals, cotton and fruit. Some wool, and silk, too, are produced. Jade is worked in the Yarkand-Pamir region, and some gold is found.

The trade of Sinkiang has generally been with India, China, Afghanistan and Soviet Central Asia. The imports from India in 1927 were valued at about Rs. 12,00,000 and the

exports to India at more than Rs. 28,00,000. Being on the northern border of India beyond the Karakoram, Sinkiang has naturally some interest for us, but Soviet Russia has been, of late, pursuing a policy of great activity, and the sovietizing of Sinkiang is being attempted. A trade agreement with Soviet Russia was concluded in 1924 and the country has been advancing in population and prosperity. The Chinese control is weak ; the British Indian policy is perhaps not sufficiently assertive and Soviet activities have resulted in unrest and rather unsettled conditions. The trade of Sinkiang is now therefore almost all with Soviet Russia.

CHAPTER III

EASTERN BORDERS

1. BURMA

FOR over fifty years a province of the Indian Empire, Burma has, from 1 April 1937, been constituted into a separate country within the British Empire. Burma or Brahmadesh has always been geographically distinct from India, being cut off from it by a series of mountain ranges forming the north-eastern frontier of India. It is a part of the peninsula of Further India, or, as it is often called, Indo-China, the names suggesting that this peninsula is a sort of extension of India or transition zone between India and China. Burma is marked off from India by the north-to-south arrangement of its mountain systems and by the Mongolian origin of the people. It is structurally and ethnologically distinct.

In area, Burma is more than 225,000 square miles, thus being larger than either France or Germany. Its extreme length north to south is over 1,200 miles; the range in latitude is about $18^{\circ} 30'$, varying from about 10° N. to about $28^{\circ} 30'$ N. The breadth nowhere exceeds 600 miles and the southern part is a narrow strip, separating the Bay of Bengal from the Gulf of Siam. Standard time in Burma is $6\frac{1}{2}$ hours ahead of Greenwich time, being based on the meridian of $97^{\circ} 30'$ E., which is more or less the central meridian of the country. The population of Burma is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ crores, giving a very low density of population as compared with the provinces of India.

The Indo-Burmese frontier is essentially a mountain frontier, the various mountain chains sweeping in a broad curve from the north-eastern extremity of the Brahmaputra valley to Cape Negrais, the southernmost point of the Arakan Yoma. The narrower belt on the north is known as the Patkoi hills. Farther south the mountain belt widens out as the Naga hills and encloses the Manipur highlands. These throw a spur westwards known as the Khasi, Jaintia and

Garó hills, all constituting the highland portion of the province of Assam. Farther south, the mountain system is continued as the Lushai hills and Chin hills separating Burma from Bengal, and finally continues southwards as the Arakan

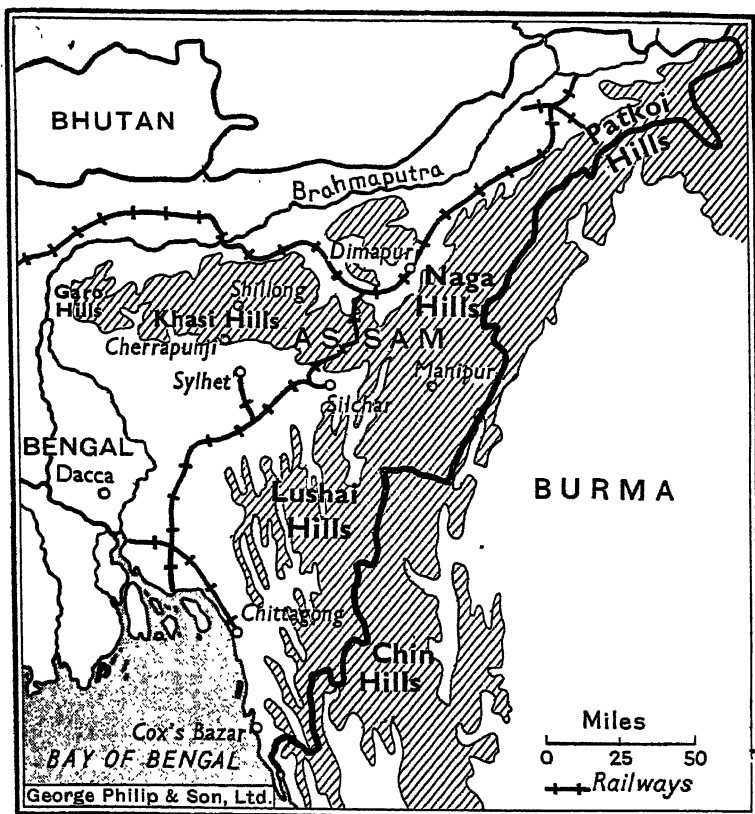


FIG. 16. Indo-Burma frontier
Areas over 1,000 ft. are shaded

Yoma of Burma. This mountain frontier stands in great contrast with the frontiers on the north and north-west of India. The ranges are low and do not attain heights exceeding 10,000 feet, except in the extreme north on the edge of Tibet where a peak rises about 20,000 feet. Being in the path of the Bay of Bengal branch of the monsoon, the area receives a

heavy rainfall. The ranges are more or less parallel to one another and they present an almost unbroken front, so that the longitudinal valleys are narrow, and inaccessible, and do not admit of easy intercourse. They are the homes of very primitive peoples like the Nagas and the Chins, who by religion are animists and who are still devoted to slavery, head-hunting, and human sacrifices. Close contact with these forest-clad hills has not encouraged any desire to establish more intimate relations with these people, and over the greater part of this area, no direct administrative control is at present exercised.

So far the Burmese railways have not been linked with the Indian system, nor has connexion between the two countries been established by a motor road across this labyrinth of hills. The Hukawn valley and the Manipur plateau offer the only practicable routes for railway construction. But the expense and lack of development of the region stand in the way, and the Arakan coastal plain route connecting Chittagong and Bassein is at present more favoured for the purpose.

The eastern frontier of Burma is also marked by hills and mountains, except where the Thaungyin, the Salween and the Mekong serve as boundaries. With China, the boundary was settled, though rather vaguely, by a Commission in the closing years of the last century. To make it more definite, and to prevent encroachments by, and frontier clashes with, the Chinese, particularly on the frontier between Burma and Yunnan, a Sino-Burmese Delimitation Commission was appointed towards the close of 1935. It has recently completed its task, but the disturbed condition of China on account of the Sino-Japanese War prevents any definite action being taken. The Shan States are on the eastern frontier and constitute a large area of over 50,000 square miles with a population of over 13 lakhs. These are still governed by hereditary chiefs, the Sawbwas, under the advice of British officers. Railway construction is being encouraged in these states, which might, in course of time, provide a direct railway link with China, French Indo-China and Siam. Farther south, there are the Karenni States, and the progressive kingdom of Siam adjoins the Tenasserim Division of Burma. The modernization of Siam and the infiltration of Japanese influences in recent

years in that country, which heretofore used to be a buffer state between the British and French powers in south-eastern Asia, has invested the Tenasserim border with great significance. A point of particular importance is that it comes very close to the isthmus of Kra, across which, under the inspiration of Japan, Siam is considering cutting a ship canal. If completed, this canal might render the defences of Singapore ineffective and become a menace to the peace of the lands of India bordering the Bay of Bengal.

The Sino-Burmese region, on the east, and the Chittagong-Arakan region are thus likely to become more significant from the point of view of the linking of the Indian railway system with that of China through the Burmese system, and of developments in trade, while the Siam frontier southwards acquires interest from the strategic point of view.

Natural regions. The following three main natural divisions can be distinguished in Burma.

- (i) The mountain frontier regions on the west, north and east ;
- (ii) The river plains of the centre, the upper Irrawaddy-Chindwin basin and the lower delta region of the Irrawaddy and the Sittang ;
- (iii) The coastal plains of Arakan and Tenasserim.

There are seven regions into which the country can be divided. The **western mountain region** is made up chiefly of the Chin hills and the Arakan hill district. The Chin hills are a maze of mountains running chiefly north and south. The mountain mass is intersected by deep valleys with no plains whatever. The Pakokku Chin hills attain a greater elevation, Mount Victoria being over 10,000 feet high. The Arakan Yoma take off from the Chin hills near Minbu, and separate the Arakan coastal region from Central Burma. The whole Chin country is covered with dense forest and the primitive mountain people are not amenable to ordered administration. **Falam** is the headquarters of the administration.

The **northern mountain region** comprises the little-developed areas in the north, where are the head waters of the Irrawaddy and its chief tributary the Chindwin. The boundaries are ill-defined.

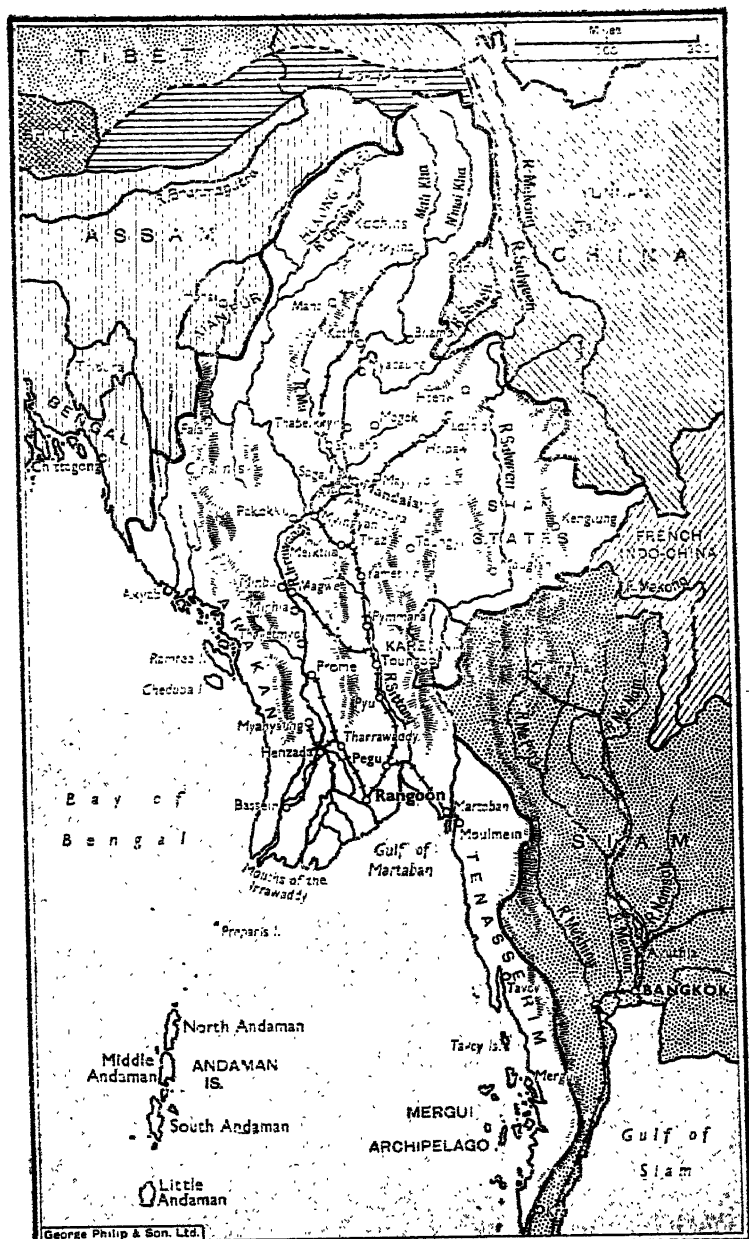


FIG. 17. Burma

Stupendous mountain peaks and magnificent Himalayan scenery are characteristic of this region, which is largely made up of the Kachin hills composing the three northern districts on the Sino-Tibetan borders.

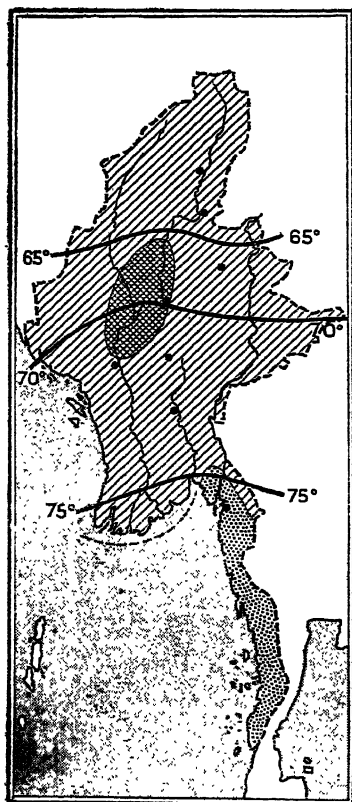


FIG. 18. Burma—Temperatures

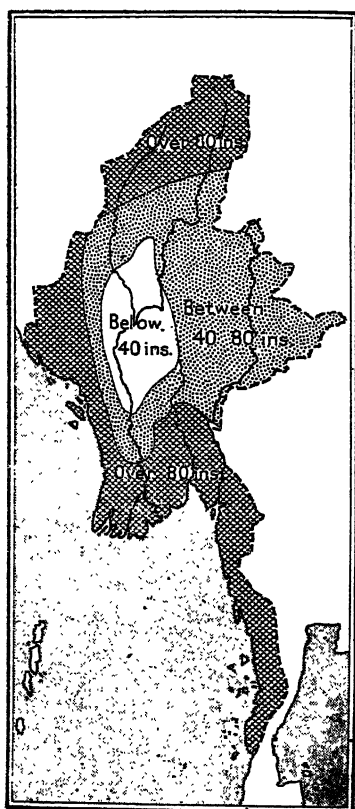


FIG. 19. Burma—Rainfall

In Fig. 18 the dotted area has a temperature in July between 75° and 80°, the lightly shaded area between 80° and 85°, and the heavily shaded area over 85°. The isotherms of 65°, 70° and 75° are January isotherms.

The eastern hill region consists of the Shan plateau, rising from 3,000 to 4,000 feet. Towards the Salween, there is a wide well-wooded plateau. East of the Salween is the hill country of Mang Lôn and the State of Kengtung, through which runs the watershed between the Salween and the Mekong,

while west of the Salween, there is the extensive plateau of Hsenwi and Hsipaw.

Central Burma is dominated by the Irrawaddy, and in the north by its great tributary, the Chindwin. The delta region is a great alluvial plain intersected by countless creeks and rivers and it includes all the districts of the Irrawaddy division, Bassein, Pyapon, Maubin, Myaungmya and Henzada. In this region, we have the richest rice land, reclaimed and protected by embankments. East of the delta, there are more vast stretches of rice lands—broken by the Pegu Yoma and its spurs—in Hanthawaddy, Tharrawaddy and Pegu. The climate of this area is hot and moist with a very heavy rainfall, and this region is the busiest part of Burma with the ports of Rangoon and Bassein and other important towns. North of the delta and deltaic plains, there are Toungoo, Prome and Thayetmyo. These last two districts are distinctly hot and dry.

From the border of Thayetmyo begins the **dry zone** of Burma. Enclosed between the Chin hills and the Shan hills, it includes the Magwe, Meiktila and Sagaing divisions and the districts of Mandalay and Shwebo. Broad undulating tablelands, arid and sterile, and broad plains cut up by deep ravines characterize this region. Along the rivers the land is richer, and in Minbu and Kyaukse there is a large area under rice. Shwebo, too, under irrigation has been transformed into a rich district. Meiktila has no navigable stream and Sagaing is altogether dry. Mandalay, Pakokku and Myingyan are important towns in this region which is known for the petroleum wells of Yenangyaung.

The **Arakan coastal region** is a strip of level country broadening out to a wide plain in the north, and is more readily subject to Indian influence than other parts. The coast is indented by numerous tidal creeks fringed by mangrove and palm jungles, though in the south the coast is rock-bound. Two large islands, Cheduba and Ramree, are included in this region, the principal port of which is Akyab with a magnificent harbour.

The **Tenasserim coastal region**, in the east and south-east, is a narrow strip of land separated from Siam by hills, mostly rugged and forest-clad. There are great mineral

possibilities, but lack of transport facilities has not permitted rapid progress and development. Moulmein is the chief port. All along the coast of Mergui there are clusters of islands famed for their charm and beauty.

Rivers. The Irrawaddy is the great river of Burma, being its chief artery of trade and the dominant physical feature. The head streams of the Irrawaddy, the N'mai Kha and the Mali Kha, issue from the Tibetan border, and traversing the northernmost district of Putao, meet 30 miles above Myitkyina. It is from here that the Irrawaddy becomes a majestic river, pursuing its course to the sea for about 1,000 miles. Above Myitkyina there are rapids, but from there to Sinbo, the course is unimpeded. Just below Sinbo the river enters the first defile, a narrow, tortuous, and romantically beautiful rock-bound gorge, about 35 miles in length, where navigation becomes extremely difficult and hazardous. The river emerges at Pashaw and flows peaceably to Bhamo. A few miles below Bhamo, it enters the second defile, not so narrow or tortuous as the first, but with dangerous eddies and whirlpools. Navigation, however, is easy and Bhamo can be reached by steamers at all times of the year. The third defile is reached near Thabeikkyn, the port for the ruby mines of Mogok, but does not offer any obstruction to navigation, so that the river flows on smoothly to Mandalay. The Irrawaddy now glides past the historic town of Ava, the typical Burmese town of Sagaing, the busy port of Myingyan, the trade centre of Pakokku, the great pagoda town of Pagan, the petroleum centres of Yenangyaung and Minbu, the ancient capital Prome, and Henzada, below which it divides into countless streams and distributaries which empty themselves into the Bay of Bengal. Across the delta, creeks give passage to steamers from Bassein to Rangoon, thus making Rangoon the great outlet for the Irrawaddy basin. Though the railway has taken away the old-time importance of the great waterway provided by the Irrawaddy, it still remains a valuable alternative to land routes. From the sea to Bhamo, a distance of about 700 miles, this great river is navigable by steamers at all times.

The Irrawaddy receives numerous affluents in its long course to the sea. On its left bank, the only tributary of note is the **Mytinge**, which runs through the Shan States and

is much used as a stream for floating timber; hydro-electric power is derived from the Namhsan waterfalls. On the right bank, the **Mu**, useful for irrigation, joins the Irrawaddy just below Sagaing. But the most important tributary is the **Chindwin**. Rising in the Hukawn valley and pursuing a winding course, it enters the Irrawaddy just above Pakokku, and is navigable for more than 300 miles.

The **Sittang** is a river of some importance, about 350 miles in length. The towns of Toungoo and Shwegyin stand on its banks, and it enters the Gulf of Martaban.

The **Salween**, however, is a much more important river, and longer than the Irrawaddy. Rising in the unknown hills of China, it traverses the Shan States and Karenni and enters the Gulf of Martaban about 30 miles below Moulmein after a course of some 650 miles. Though the Salween is not so useful for navigation, it is of great value for the transport of teak from the forests of the Shan hills, Karenni and Siam to the great depot at Kado above Moulmein.

During the cretaceous period, there were widespread earth-movements, which continued during the Tertiary Age and which have been mainly responsible for the configuration of large areas of Asia, and by their corrugating action have determined the present system of mountains and valleys in Burma. Before this period, India was a part of the Indo-African continent of Gondwanaland, the north-eastern coastline of which extended to the north-east of Assam, where it curved round to the western margin of the Shan plateau, and thence to the present coast of Tenasserim and Malaya. The sea bounded by these coasts was the forerunner of the Bay of Bengal, and was separated from the Tibetan Sea by the Shan States and the Kachin country. The earth-movements that were then initiated were from the north and the east, the northern leading to the folding of the Gondwana continent and the uplift of the Himalayas, and the eastern producing the uplift of the Naga hills and the Arakan Yoma, and forming the trough of the Chindwin-Irrawaddy and of the old Meghna. The mountain ranges of the two systems meet and bend near the north-east of Assam. This eastern movement was the chief factor in the moulding of the present physical features of Burma, and explains the north-to-south direction of its

mountains and valleys. The Arakan Yoma sink below sea level, but appear again in the Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

People. The total population of Burma is a little under 1·47 crores. Of these 90 lakhs are Burmans, 10 lakhs are Shans, 14 lakhs are Karens, 5 lakhs are Arakanese and 10 lakhs are others, such as the Chins and Kachins. There is, besides, a large alien population, the Indians numbering more than 10 lakhs, the Chinese about 2 lakhs, the Europeans, Anglo-Indians and Anglo-Burmans together over 2 lakhs. The **Burmese**, forming the bulk of the population, belong to the Tibetan group of the Mongolian race; their language is one of the Tibeto-Chinese family; their religion is Buddhism, though the worship of nature spirits is also widely practised by the hill people. The Burmese are short in stature, but sturdy and muscular, and resemble the Gurkha in appearance. Their dress is distinctive, consisting chiefly of a loose jacket, a **longyi** round the waist, and a silk handkerchief round the forehead. Burmese women lead a free and open life, and play an important part in petty trade in bazaars and markets. Every village has a pagoda and monastery and the country is sometimes spoken of by western tourists as 'the land of pagodas'. These monasteries serve as primary schools and the percentage of literacy among the people is therefore very high, every child having to pass some time in a monastery, whether he wishes to become a monk or not. The Burmese are impatient of control and not easily amenable to discipline and restraint.

The **Karens** have their home in Karenni and are good farmers. They are no longer backward and savage and are fast becoming progressive. The **Shans** are akin to the Siamese. They are typically traders, and weekly bazaars are characteristic of the Shan country, the best known of such bazaars being held at Kengtung, Bhamo, Mogok and Maymyo. The **Chins** are a primitive and turbulent people in the difficult country on the Indo-Burmese frontier. The **Kachins** are mountain people, hardy, brave and intelligent, in the hill tracts of Bhamo, Myitkyina, Putao and Katha; they live in stockaded villages on the hilltops.

Of the settlers, the **Chinese** generally come from the coastal tracts and from Yunnan and make good citizens. The **Indian**

settlers are numerically large and are important in the trade of the country, particularly in large towns—when a peasant is unable to pay his debts the Chetti money-lenders take a portion of his land and are gradually becoming wealthy land-owners—while Indian labourers on the rice fields in the delta region are fairly numerous. It is these Indian settlers who invest Burma with special significance and interest for India. Burma is under-populated and offers good scope for immigration to Indians ; this and the fact of the important position which Indian merchants occupy in the economic life of modern Burma made the question of separation of that country from India an issue of great significance. The Burma legislature returned an uncertain verdict, and after a special Round Table Conference, it was decided to constitute Burma into a separate country and not to make it a constituent part of the India Federation, even experimentally with the right of secession.

Products. Agriculture is the most important industry of Burma and supports nearly three-fourths of the population. **Rice** is the staple crop, the area under rice being about 12½ million acres, of which 8 are in Lower Burma. In Upper Burma irrigation is of great importance, and Shwebo has become a great rice-producing district. With an enormous output and a relatively small population, there is a large surplus of rice, which thus becomes the most outstanding export of the country. Among other crops may be mentioned **sesamum** or til seed, and **groundnuts**, principally in Pakokku, Magwe and Myingyan. **Tobacco** is grown in most parts of Burma, but chiefly for home consumption. Burma cheroots are well known but are made of imported tobacco, though in recent years the tobacco grown at Danubyu from Virginian and Havana seed has been successfully used for the purpose. **Tea** is produced in the Shan State of Tawngpeng, and a good deal is made into **letpet**, a pickled tea, used generally as a condiment. **Rubber** is a plantation crop chiefly in Mergui, Hanthawaddy, Amherst and Toungoo.

Forests play an important part in the economic life of the country and are among the most valuable sources of wealth. The most important timber obtained from these forests is **teak** which, when cut into logs, is drawn by elephants to the nearest creek, and thence floated down the great rivers

to Rangoon or Moulmein. Among the most important teak forests are those in Tenasserim, on the sides of the Pegu Yoma, on the hills to the east of the Sittang, in Upper Chindwin, in Bhamo, Katha and Mandalay and in the Shan States and Karenni. Of the other forest trees of economic importance, **padauk** is useful for the making of cart wheels and for gun-

carriages, and **cutch** gives valuable tanning material.

The mineral wealth of Burma is considerable. The most valuable mineral is **petroleum**, found in the lower tertiary beds of the Irrawaddy basin and the Arakan coast. The best known of the oil wells are at Yenangyaung in Magwe, worked by the Burma Oil Company; other wells are found at Singu, Yenangyat and Minbu. A pipeline conveys the oil to Syriam, south of Rangoon. From crude oil, petrol, kerosene, lubricating oil and paraffin wax are obtained. The total output of petroleum in 1936 was about 266 million gallons

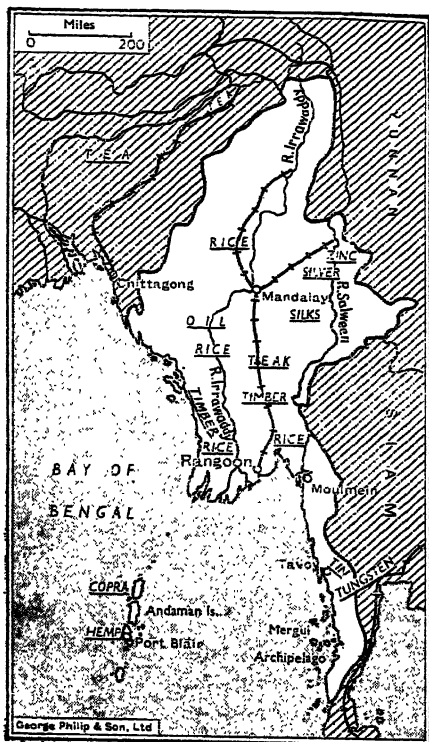


FIG. 20. Burma—Products

valued at about 10 crores of rupees. **Tin** is another important mineral, chiefly found in Tavoy and Mergui districts; this Tenasserim tin belt together with that of the Federated Malay States constitutes the world's most important source of supply. **Wolfram** or **tungsten** is found usually in the tin areas; its chief use is in the process of hardening steel, and it is a valuable constituent for the production of steel required for high-speed

tools. The silver-lead deposits at Bawdwin in the northern Shan States are among the richest of their kind in the world ; silver, lead, zinc and a little copper are obtained from these, chiefly by the Burma Corporation, the value of the output being over one crore of rupees annually. Burma has long been known for its rubies : these are chiefly obtained from the Mogok mines in Upper Burma, worked by native miners working under licences. From the same mines sapphires are also quarried. Jadite, a mineral closely resembling jade is obtained in the Myitkyina district and is much prized by the Chinese. Besides these, amber varying in colour from a pale yellow to a dull brown is found in the Hukawn valley and is used by the Burmese for pipe, cigar and cigarette mouthpieces as well as for rosaries, and ornaments.

The large production of rice had led to the establishment of an important rice-milling industry at Rangoon and other ports, which, though directed by Europeans, gives employment to a large number of Burmese and Indians. The abundance of teak has similarly led to the establishment of numerous saw-mills, and the production of petroleum to the establishment of oil refineries at Syriam, south of Rangoon. Fishing is the Burmese industry next in importance after agriculture and is carried on mainly in the delta region, and on the sea coast. The introduction of cheap machine-made goods has led to the decline of hand-weaving, but there has been a revival at Amarapura of the manufacture of silk cloth as a cottage industry. Burmese art has long been famous, and silver work and wood-carving have attained an excellent standard. The lacquer work of Burma is very well known, the chief centre being Pagan.

Trade. The chief exports from Burma are rice, oil and teak. Rice is exported to many parts of the world, the principal customers being Ceylon, the Straits Settlements and the United Kingdom, while India takes a large proportion when its own production has suffered. Oil and teak are largely absorbed by India. Among other exports may be mentioned tin, wolfram, silver, lead, zinc, jadite, rubber and cutch. The total export trade of Burma with India in 1937-8 was 26 crores of rupees, the chief articles being rice, mineral oil and teak.

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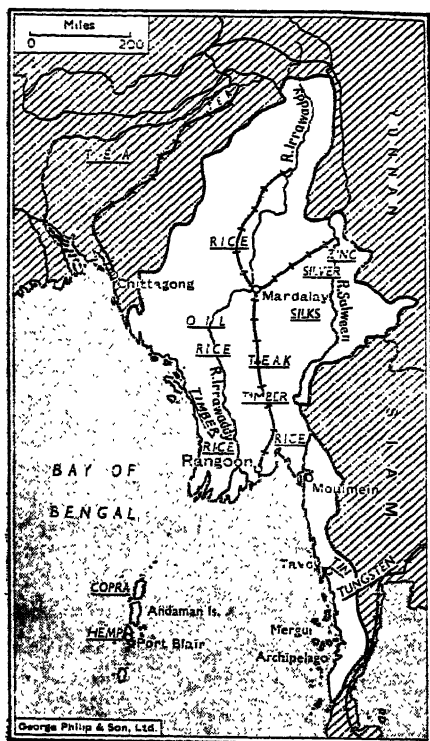


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chiefly from England and jute manufactures from India. China sends a large quantity of raw silk for hand-weaving. Liquors, metal and metal goods, motor cars, machinery and mill-work are other important imports. The total import trade with India in 1937-8 was 11 crores of rupees, the leading imports being cotton manufactures, jute manufactures, tobacco, sugar and tea.

Rangoon is the chief port of Burma, with an excellent situation as a collecting and distributing centre; it handles

about 85 per cent of the trade of Burma. The other ports of note are Akyab, the port for the Arakan coastal region, Bassein, the rice port of the delta region, and Moulmein, which with Tavoy and Mergui serves the Tenasserim division.

Communications.

The Irrawaddy, and to some extent

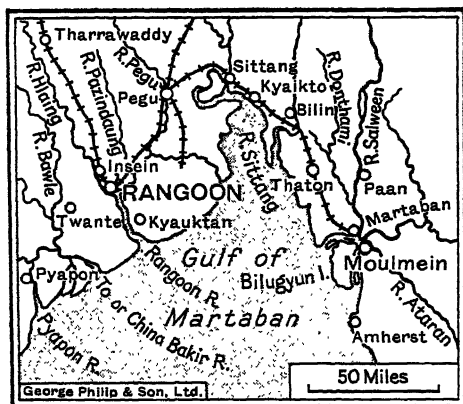


FIG. 21. Rangoon

the Chindwin, are the great waterways of Burma and have proved to be of the greatest service in establishing easy communication between the ports and the interior. In the delta region a network of waterways greatly facilitates trade and intercourse. The Irrawaddy Flotilla Company with its fine fleet of mail, cargo and ferry boats serves the needs of river traffic very well. The natural facilities for communication afforded by these waterways are supplemented by railways which have now an open mileage of over 2,000 miles. The main line runs from Rangoon to Mandalay and thence to Myitkyina. Rangoon is connected by rail with Bassein and Pegu, while the Pegu-Martaban line connects with Moulmein. From Mandalay, a line runs to Lashio, the chief town in the northern Shan States, whence it was proposed to construct the Sino-Burmese railway to Talifu, the capital of Yunnan. The idea has not been translated into practice because of doubts

about the commercial possibilities, but strategic consideration might now revive the project, the Chinese and Burmese extensions meeting at the Kunlong Ferry on the Salween, about 100 miles north-east of Lashio.

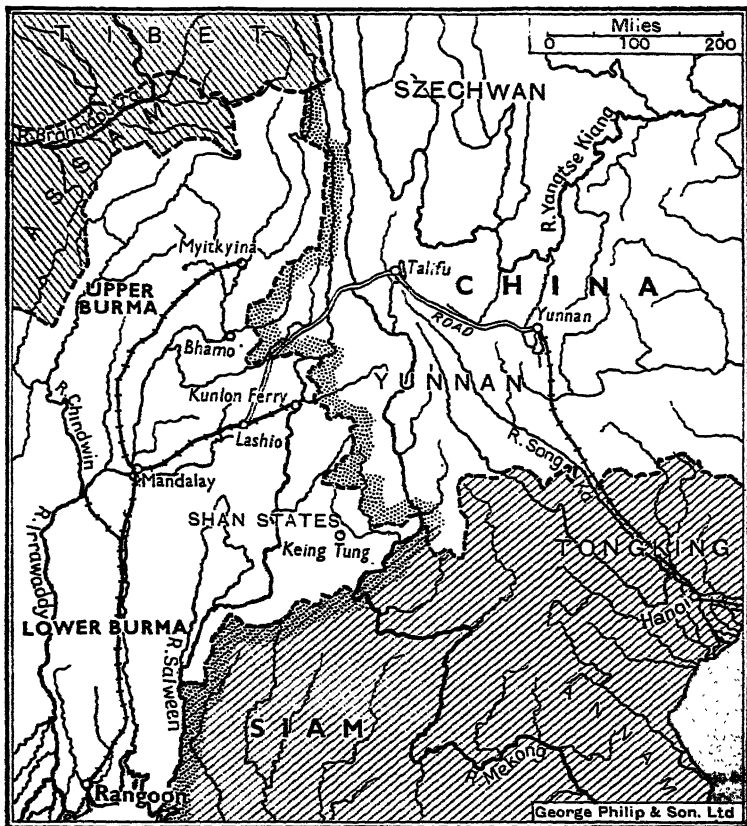


FIG. 22. Between Burma and China

The separation of Burma from the Indian Empire is a sore point with Indians, since the country, because of a fairly long association, great trade interests, and scope for immigration, has been regarded as being entirely within the Indian sphere of influence. On the other hand, the great importance of the Burmese oil resources for military purposes, the

possibilities of the development of overland trade with China through Rangoon and the great strategic importance of the Kra isthmus and Singapore, make it desirable for England to maintain its control over Burma directly, instead of through India.

2. SIAM

Siam is an independent country in the Indo-China peninsula, between Burma and French Indo-China, and it serves as a buffer state between the British and the French powers in Asia. The country is called by the Siamese people 'Muang Thai' which means 'the land of the free', but to outsiders it is known as Siam. Until 1932 the country was an absolute monarchy under King Prajadhipok but a modern popular form of government was introduced in 1933. Continued unrest in the country led to the abdication of the King, who was succeeded by his young nephew Ananda in 1935, the administration being vested in a Council of Regency during the minority of the King.

Siam enjoys full fiscal autonomy, the extra-territorial rights granted to foreigners have been cancelled, and the country has enjoyed complete independence since 1926, when treaties were concluded with Great Britain, France and other European countries.

Siam has an extent of about 200,000 square miles and is thus a little smaller than Burma. The population is over $1\frac{1}{4}$ crores of whom the great majority, a little more than 1 crore, are Siamese. The Chinese immigrants form an important minority and number about $4\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs, while Indians and Malays are a little under 4 lakhs. The aboriginal people of the Malay Peninsula, very interesting primitive types, have been driven into the hills of northern Siam.

Most of the people profess Buddhism but generally with an admixture of Indo-Chinese nature-worship and traces of the Brahminism, which left its impress upon the life and religious practices of the Siamese during the early colonizing and mercantile activity of Indians. A large percentage of the people of both sexes are literate, the schools in the monasteries, as in Burma, playing an active part in elementary education.

Physical divisions. A map of the country shows clearly four physical regions.

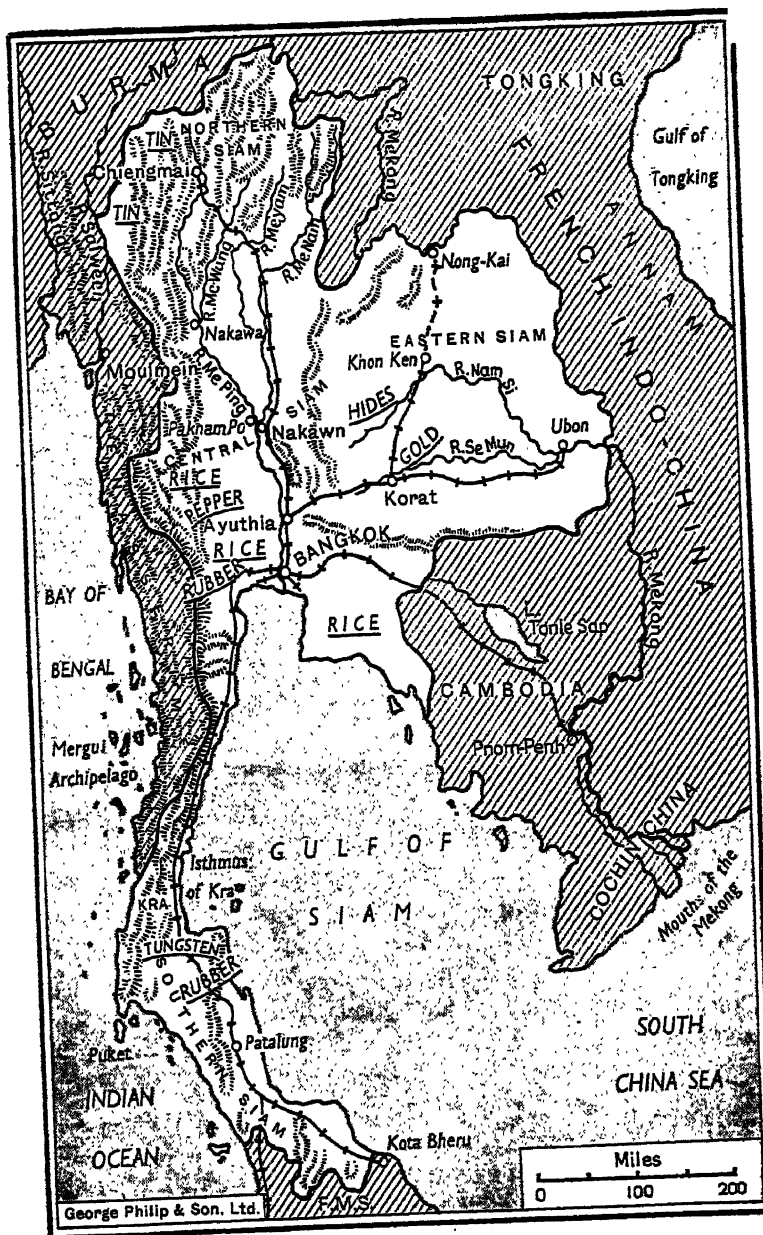


FIG. 23. Siam

(i) **Northern Siam** is a mountainous land in which the MeNam, the life-blood of Siam, has its origin. The river flows through an elevated valley, flanked by forest-covered limestone ranges running from north to south. These hills attain heights of about 7,000 feet in the north-west and the surface water from them drains to the Salween on the west and the Mekong on the east, both of which form the boundary of Siam for a great distance, but the drainage is principally to the MeNam in the centre. The MeNam with its principal tributaries the Me Ping, Me-Wang and the Meyam forms the main artery of trade for the population, which is largely clustered along their banks. The chief town of this region is Chiangmai and the chief product is teak. Tall bamboos also grow well and, from afar, large clusters of these indicate villages in their shade. The climate of the mountain valley is extreme, the temperature rising to 100° by day and falling to 35° at night in winter, and is of the monsoon type. It is unhealthy, and tropical diseases and jungle fever are frequent.

(ii) **The MeNam plain** is a broad and extensive plain of more than 50,000 square miles, enclosed between the Shan hills of Burma, the northern hills, the eastern divide between the MeNam and Mekong basins, and the Gulf of Siam. The MeNam receives its principal tributary, the Me Ping, near Nakawa and Paknam Po and flows as a sluggish stream forming huge swamps on its banks, which make the vicinity unhealthy and malarial. The soil is a rich alluvial clay, and with proper irrigation would be suitable for rice production. As it is, rice is the natural food and the staple article of export. The chief town of the plain and the only port is Bangkok, the capital, with a population of over 6 lakhs. It is not accessible to large ships, however, owing to a bar at the mouth of the MeNam.

(iii) **The Mekong basin** is the eastern division of the country. It is the plain formed by the Mekong and its tributaries the Nam Si and the Takrom or SeMun. It is enclosed in a ring of mountain ranges, the northern and eastern ranges separating it from Annam and the land of the Laos, the southern from Cambodia, and the western from the MeNam plain. The rivers, during the rains, are raging torrents, deep and swift, though in the dry season their courses are much obstructed

by shallows and trees. Not even the Mekong is navigable. The huge shallow basin consists largely of unreclaimed swamps, saline wastes, and scrub jungles. The climate is very unhealthy and the plateau is isolated completely from the currents of life outside.

(iv) **Lower Siam.** This region consists largely of the narrow part of the Malay Peninsula. The main mountain axis separates it from Tenasserim in Burma, and the Siamese territory is but a narrow coastal strip, rather densely forested and uncultivable, the sandstones and limestones having been contorted and fantastically tilted. Farther south, Siam's sway extends from coast to coast till British Malaya is reached in about 6° N. latitude. The scenery in this region is of surpassing beauty; the climate is healthy; the broad open plains grow rice remarkably well, and cattle-rearing is an important occupation. The peninsular strip is very narrow in about 10° N. latitude and is known as the Isthmus of Kra. Across this isthmus in Siamese territory a ship canal has often been projected to shorten the distance between the Far Eastern ports and Bangkok on the one hand and the Indian ports on the other, and to obviate the need for following a rather circuitous route round Singapore through the Strait of Malacca.

Products. The most important agricultural crop is rice, the yield being more than 5 million tons. Para rubber plantations have become successful in southern Siam in recent years, and the area under rubber is about 275,000 acres. Areca-nuts and coconuts are other important products. In the jungles of Siam elephants, numbering more than 10,000, are important agents of transport. Teak is produced abundantly in northern Siam, and the logs are floated downstream via the Salween to Moulmein or via the MeNam to Bangkok. Siam is rich in minerals, the most important of which is tin, mined from the granites of the Malay Peninsula by Chinese labour. Wolfram or tungsten is found in the same region, while sapphires are also worked on a commercial basis.

Trade. Siam has a fairly large trade amounting in 1936-7 to over 11 million pounds' worth of exports and about 9 million pounds' worth of imports. The leading exports are rice, tin and teak, while the chief imports are cotton goods, jute manufactures, food-stuffs, and mineral oil. There is considerable

trans-frontier trade carried on by hawkers with Burma and Yunnan, but the bulk of the trade passes on to the great entrepôt centres—Singapore and Hong Kong, whence the commodities of commerce are carried to China and Europe. The Indo-Siamese trade is not unimportant, Indian imports, chiefly gunny bags and cotton piecegoods, amounting to 43 lakhs of rupees, and Siamese exports chiefly rice, and teak wood amounting to $1\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs in 1937-8. An interesting feature in recent years has been the great development of trade with Japan, which sends to Siam goods worth more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ million pounds sterling, though it imports goods worth only about 0.4 million.

Communications. The railway mileage in Siam is a little over 2,000. The Northern railway goes from Bangkok to Chiangmai, a distance of 410 miles, while the Southern railway runs from Bangkok along the east coast strip to the frontier, a distance of 748 miles, and thence by the Federated Malay States railway route to Singapore. The north-eastern line has been extended from Korat to Khon Ken whence an extension to Nong-Kai will take it to the frontier. Korat has also been connected with Ubon near the Laos frontier.

The peculiar interest that Siam has for India lies in the fact that it offers scope for immigration and trading settlements to Indians, and in the possibility of a Kra Canal reducing the distance between the Indian ports and Bangkok. In recent years, since the abdication of King Prajadhipok, Japanese influence has been extending rapidly and Japan is credited with the intention of undertaking the construction of the Kra Canal. This would rob the naval base at Singapore of a great deal of its strategic importance as the key between the Pacific and Indian Oceans on the Far Eastern trade routes, and is a matter of vital importance to Great Britain for the defence of India and Australia against possible Japanese aggression.

3. BRITISH MALAYA

British Malaya consists of the part, south of Siam, of the narrow peninsula stretching southwards from the larger peninsula of Indo-China. Politically, the peninsula is divided into three areas, the Straits Settlements, which form a British

Crown Colony, the Federated Malay States, and the Unfederated Malay States. It extends from about 1° to 6° N. latitude, being separated from Sumatra by the Strait of Malacca. Malaya is mountainous. The Indo-Malayan mountain system,



FIG. 24. British Malaya

older than the Alpine-Himalayan system, runs through the entire length of the peninsula and includes the numerous granite masses which yield the famous tin deposits of Indo-China and Malaya. This mesozoic massif is flanked by tertiary rocks rich in mineral oil, but there is at present no commercial oil production. The main range rises in places to about

8,000 feet and divides the country into a narrower western part and a broader eastern area. The surface is generally undulating and covered with dense forests of the equatorial type, though there are some open grassy plains. The western coastal tract is more fertile and better developed than the eastern tract, which is more mountainous. The climate is of the equatorial type, with but little range of temperature between 'summer' and 'winter'. The rainfall is very heavy and there is no definitely dry season at all, the 'summer' being the wetter season in the west and the 'winter' in the east. Thus heat and humidity produce a monotonous climate, healthy enough, but not invigorating or energizing. Rubber planting, tin mining, and agriculture are the chief occupations of the people.

Administrative divisions. The Straits Settlements form a Crown Colony administered by a Governor assisted by an Executive Council and a Legislative Council. Singapore is the seat of Government. The Straits Settlements comprise: the islands of Penang and Singapore; Labuan Island, off the coast of British North Borneo; Cocos Islands, midway on the route from Colombo to Freemantle in Australia; Christmas Island, about 200 miles south of Java; Malacca and Province Wellesley and the Dindings; and they have a total area of 1,500 square miles. **Singapore** is a small island about 26 miles long by 14 miles wide separated from the mainland by a strait about three-fourths of a mile in width. **Penang** is a still smaller island. Guarding the entrance to the Strait of Malacca from the north and the south, these two islands are strategically most important. Province Wellesley is a small coastal strip on the mainland opposite Penang, the two together with the Dindings forming the Settlement of Penang. Southwards from Penang is the settlement of Malacca. The population of the Colony is a little more than 10½ lakhs, made up chiefly of Chinese and Malays, though Europeans, Eurasians and Indians are important communities. The Chinese are mostly engaged in tin-mining, the Malays in agriculture and in fishing, the Europeans in commerce or administration and the Indians on rubber plantations and in Singapore Island as clerks and shopkeepers.

The early history of Singapore is shrouded in obscurity: In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries A.D. it was of growing

importance, but was destroyed by the Javanese in 1377. In 1511, Albuquerque captured Malacca and made that area the centre of Portuguese influence for a while; the Dutch ousted the Portuguese in 1642. The British East India Company occupied Penang in 1786 and Province Wellesley in 1800. In 1819, Sir Stamford Raffles established a trading settlement at Singapore which was ceded by the Sultan of Johore, and with the withdrawal of the Dutch from Malacca in 1825, British influence in the peninsula was supreme. The Straits Settlements were constituted in 1825, and transferred from the control of India to that of Great Britain in 1867. The Dindings were annexed in 1874, the Cocos Islands in 1886, Christmas Island in 1889. Labuan was included in 1907 but was constituted a separate settlement in 1912. The Cocos Islands have a strategic importance as the meeting-place of the submarine cables from Colombo to Freemantle and from Mauritius to Batavia and as a wireless station. It was here that the German raider, the Emden, was destroyed by an Australian cruiser in the War of 1914-18.

The small states on the Malacca boundary were confederated to form Negri Sembilan in 1889. In 1896, Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan and Pahang joined to form the Federated Malay States. The Governor of the Straits Settlements is the High Commissioner of the States and President of the Federal Council. The total area of the Federated States is about 27,500 square miles and the population about 16½ lakhs, of whom the Chinese and the Malays number about 6½ lakhs each, while the Indians number about 3½ lakhs. The federal capital is Kuala Lumpur, a city with a population of over 1 lakh. The Indians work on the rubber plantations, while the Chinese, who are the predominant element, are engaged in trade and tin-mining.

In British Malaya, there are five states, Johore, Kedah, Perlis, Kelantan and Trengganu between Singapore Island and Siam. The Sultan of Johore accepted British protection in 1885, and Siam withdrew its suzerainty over the four northern states in 1909. The rulers of these states carry on the administration under the advice of a British Adviser. Johore has an area of about 7,500 square miles and a population of about 5 lakhs, including about half a lakh of Indians; the four

northern states together have an area of about 15,000 square miles and a population of about 10½ lakhs, of whom about half a lakh are Indians.

Importance to India. British Malaya is important to India as an outlet for its surplus population and as a possible field for colonization. There are in all more than 6½ lakhs of Indians in Malaya, most of whom are absorbed on the rubber estates, tin mines, railways, public works department, harbours, municipalities, sanitary and rural boards and in various commercial establishments. A few Indians are flourishing in trade, business and the learned professions. The country is also of great interest to us for its ancient cultural and ethnographic affinity with India. Washed on its western shores by the Straits of Malacca, British Malaya has a position of great strategic value on the route from India to China, Japan and Australia. Penang and Singapore, commandingly situated at the ends of the Strait of Malacca, are vital points in the scheme of defence against Japanese aggression. The position might materially alter if the Kra Canal is constructed by Siam with Japanese assistance. But as it is, India has natural, commercial, colonial and strategic interests in Malaya, which clearly falls within the Indian political and economic ambit.

The Indian labour problem in British Malaya has aroused a great deal of attention in recent years and the Right Honourable Mr V. Srinivasa Sastri was sent over by the Government of India to report on the condition of Indian labour in Malaya. The vast majority of the Indian population in Malaya are Tamils, there being only a few Telugus, Malayalis, Punjabis and Bengalis. One of the most important features of the Indo-Malayan problem is the proportion of the sexes. The Indian emigrants do not take their womenfolk with them, and the ratio of males to females was 2·8 : 1 in 1930. Recruitment for Indian labour emigration to Ceylon and Malaya has been conducted by *kanganis*, Indian labourers who have served in those lands and who visit India for the specific purpose of finding labourers for colonial employment. The *kangani* is generally the senior member of a family group composed of relatives and friends from his own native village, and family recruitment is usual. The Indian Emigration Rules of 1923

require that the number of emigrants, unmarried or unaccompanied by their wives, should not exceed one in five, so as to secure a decent sex ratio, but so far as Malaya is concerned, this rule has been suspended. The result is a growing disparity in the sex ratio. The greater distance of Malaya and the growing importance of unassisted emigration, which is usually of the males only, accentuates this disparity, and the conditions of life of the Indians in Malaya are not very satisfactory. The great economic depression led to the repatriation of Indian labourers from Malaya in 1932. Repatriation, however, does not solve the problem of avoiding a glut. The returning labourers cannot readily be absorbed in India and they naturally become hostile propagandists for further necessary recruitment when trade revives and plantation industries demand a larger labour force. Besides, the interests of those Indians in Malaya who are engaged in non-agricultural pursuits demand a wider franchise, greater facilities for education and better protection of their interests. Absorption and not repatriation is thus the solution of the problem of the Indians in Malaya.

Products. Rubber production is of pre-eminent importance, the value of the exports of rubber being about one-half the value of all exports. The prosperity of Malaya is bound up with the success and expansion of the vast rubber plantations. These plantations are under European management and the work of collecting the latex is in the hands of the Tamil labourers from India. Rubber was introduced into Malaya from Brazil. Coconuts are next in importance, and plantations have succeeded throughout the country, but particularly on the coastal tracts in the west. The increase in the consumption and manufacture of margarine provides a steady market for copra and coconut oil. Rice is the chief cereal grown by the Malays in the forest clearings, but the production is not enough for the needs of the population and rice has to be imported from India, Siam and the East Indies. Rice cultivation thrives with a well-regulated water supply, and the Krian irrigation works in Perak are the most notable in the country, irrigating about 70,000 acres. Pineapples grow very well, particularly in the island of Singapore, under the careful agricultural methods of the Chinese. The canning industry controlled by the Chinese ranks as the fourth most

important industry of Malaya. Among other special products may be mentioned gutta-percha, tapioca and sago, areca-nuts, spices (especially pepper), palm oil and rattan canes.

Just as rubber dominates Malaya's agricultural exports, tin dominates its mineral exports. The output of tin is regulated under an international scheme and Malaya's share

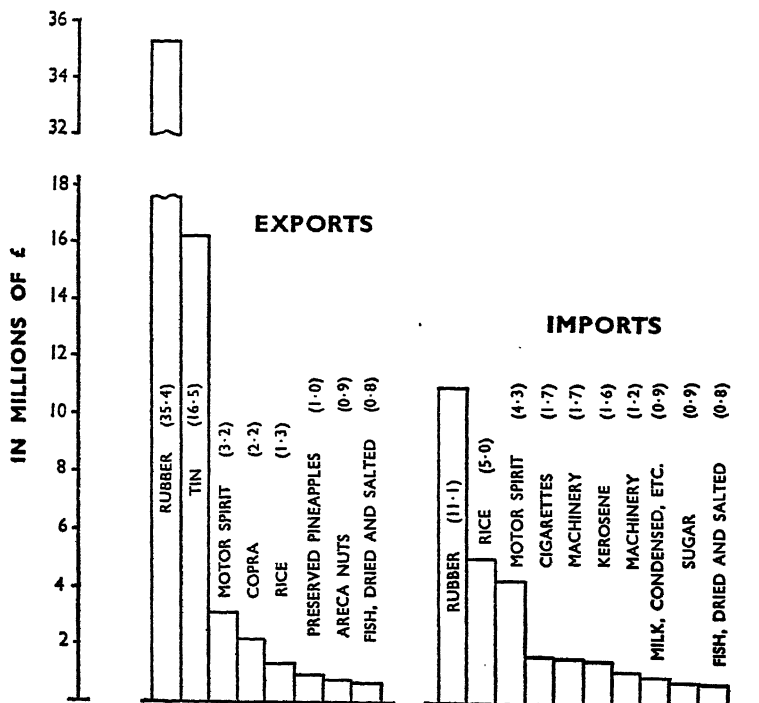


FIG. 25. British Malaya
Leading Exports and Imports, 1936

increased from 1937 to about 72,000 tons, has recently been reduced a little. Rich deposits of tin are found in the western valleys, and the ore is smelted at Singapore and Penang. Malaya stands first in the world as a producer of tin. Some small quantities of gold, coal and iron ore are also obtained in the F.M.S. Labuan has large deposits of coal, and Christmas Island has enormous phosphate deposits, useful for the preparation of artificial manures and chemical products.

Commerce. The chief exports from Malaya are rubber and tin, which were valued in 1936 at 30 million and 13½ million pounds sterling respectively ; other exports are petrol, copra, areca-nuts, preserved pineapples, pepper, rattans and sago. The total value of the exports in 1936 was 74½ million pounds. The principal exports to India were areca-nuts, tin, vegetable oils and lac, the total value in 1937-8 being about 3·7 crores of rupees. The chief imports were rice, rubber, petrol, cigarettes and cotton piecegoods of the total value of about 60 million pounds. India supplied rice of the value of about 10 lakhs, cotton manufactures valued at about 91 lakhs and jute manufactures worth about 37½ lakhs of rupees, the total imports from India being valued in 1937-8 at 2·6 crores.

The main features of Malayan economy are that the country is liberally endowed with natural resources ; that the native population is easy-going and contented by nature, winning its livelihood from the soil and the sea ; that rubber and tin are the chief tributaries that make up the stream of foreign trade, and that the main function of the Straits Settlements is to act as entrepôt ports not only for the rest of Malaya, but also for adjacent countries. Singapore and Penang are thus great collecting and distributing centres, not only for Malaya but also for adjacent countries, and despite increased facilities for direct trade, they are likely to retain their importance in the distribution of cottons and cigarettes, machinery and manufactures from Europe and America, India, China and Japan to Java, Sumatra, Borneo and Siam ; and in the collection from these areas of tropical produce, and the sorting, grading, conditioning treatment, and re-exporting of them to world markets.

Singapore has an excellent situation on a little island in the extreme south of Malaya on the great ocean route to the Far East. It is the doorway to the East, the most important British outpost between Ceylon and Hong Kong, a strategic focus of world-wide importance and one of the greatest commercial cities of the world. The harbour affords good anchorage and excellent wharfage. A first-class naval base has been built. Penang has been eclipsed by Singapore, but still has a large and thriving trade. It controls the

northern entrance to the Strait of Malacca and is the outlet for produce such as areca-nut, spices and rice from Province Wellesley and adjacent states. It has a very good harbour.

Singapore and Penang are free ports and no customs duties are levied except on liquors, tobacco and petroleum. Japanese goods, including tinplates, are penetrating the

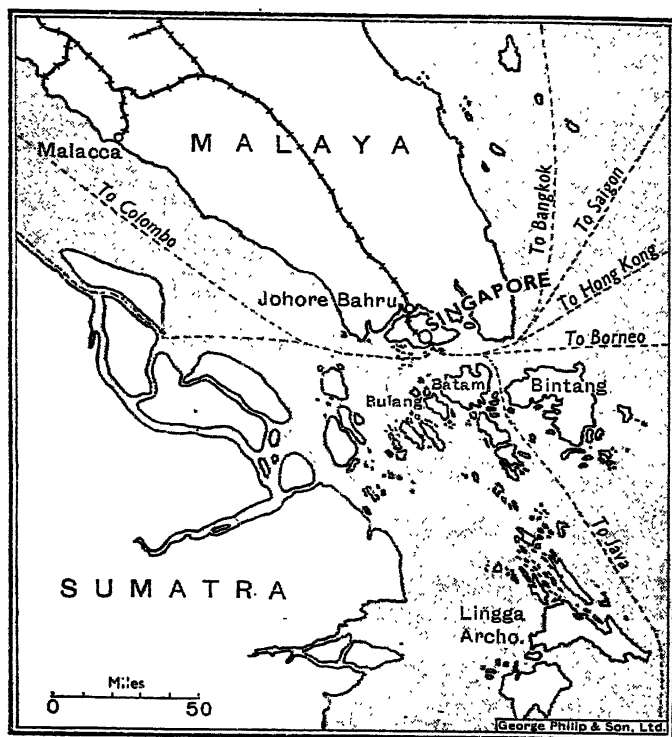


FIG. 26. Singapore

market. Malaya is a price market and Japan, by the combination of cheapness and improving quality, has consolidated her position as one of the leading sources of supply and has made competition with her goods exceedingly difficult.

Besides the free ports of Singapore and Penang, trade passes also through Port Swettenham in the F.M.S. Malacca is not as important as it used to be under the Portuguese and the Dutch, though it has still some local trade. Its chief

interest nowadays is, however, historical. **Kuala Lumpur** is the largest town in the F.M.S., the federal capital and an important commercial centre.

Communications. There are about 1,100 miles of railways. The main line of the F.M.S. railway system runs north from Singapore to the Siamese frontier, a distance of about 580 miles. From Singapore Island, the railway passes over a causeway to Johore Bharu, the capital of Johore, and crosses the F.M.S. to Province Wellesley. It then runs through the states of Kedah and Perlis to Padang Besar. At Gemas, in Negri Sembilan, the east coastline branches off from the main line and proceeds through Pahang to Tumpat in Kelantan, about 465 miles from Singapore, whence a line connects with the Siamese frontier. Branch lines connect with the chief ports, Malacca, Port Dickson (the chief port of Negri Sembilan), Port Swettenham, Telok Anson (the main port of Perak) and Port Weld (which serves the rich Larut tin-fields in the same state). Penang is connected with the railway system by steam ferry services; so also is Khota Bharu in Kelantan.

There are more than 5,000 miles of metalled roads in Malaya. The main trunk road of over 500 miles runs from Singapore to Penang.

4. FRENCH INDO-CHINA

French Indo-China has an area of about 300,000 square miles and a population of more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ crores, of whom about half a lakh are Europeans. The whole country is placed under a Governor-General assisted by a Secretary-General and is divided into five states, the colony of Cochin-China, and the protectorates of Annam, Cambodia, Tongking and Laos, while Kwang Chau-Wan, leased from China, has now also been placed under the central administration.

The intervention of the French in the affairs of Indo-China began as early as 1787, but they did not obtain a footing till 1862 when Cochin-China was ceded by the Emperor of Annam, a vassal of China. This region became a French colony, and from it French influence soon spread to other parts of the peninsula. Cambodia became a French protectorate in 1863. Armed clashes in the early eighties of the last

century resulted in the recognition, by China, of French protectorates over Annam and Tongking, and the Laos territory came under French influence in 1893. Kwang Chau-Wan on the coast of China was leased from China in 1899 and was placed under French Indo-China.

The country is half as large again as France and about twice as large as the provinces of Bombay and Sind together. It presents a varied configuration. **Annam** is a highland region consisting of a granite mountain chain running close to the coast and stretching from Tongking to Cochin-China. The barrier rises to heights of from 4,000 to 9,000 feet, and has but few passes of any importance except that of Ai-lao, so that the interior is cut off from the sea. The forests covering the range make communications still more difficult, and the population is concentrated in the small valleys of the short coastal rivers. **Tongking** in the north is a highland region too, the ancient rocks being a continuation of the Yunnan system. It covers the basin of the Red river (Song kai), in which is concentrated almost the whole population of the province. **Cochin-China** is largely the great deltaic region of the Mekong with a few granite masses projecting north-eastwards as spurs of the Annam Cordillera. **Cambodia**, north of Cochin-China, is separated from Annam by the great Cordillera and is a depression through which the Mekong flows to the sea through Cochin-China. The centre of this depression is filled by the Mekong forming the Great Lakes. The **Laos** territory is thinly peopled, largely undeveloped and not easily accessible. It consists of highlands and forests, more closely connected with Siam on the west, from which it is only separated by the Mekong, than with Annam, from which it is cut off by the Cordillera.

The Cordillera, the Red river and the Mekong are thus three outstanding features of the configuration of French Indo-China. The Mekong is a very long and important river which emerges from the tangle of limestone ranges of southern China, and spreads itself over the sandstone plateau of the Laos. The course is marked by rapids and waterfalls and therefore the river does not serve as an artery of trade and intercourse and gives little help in the development of the country. During its course through Cambodia, the Mekong

spreads out and fills the great lake Tonle Sap, which is an important feature of the country. During the dry season, the waters of the lake flow back to the river and the lake is reduced to a large number of pools rich in fish; this gives Cambodia its great fish-salting and smoking industry. The Mekong and the Great Lake with their tributaries provide about 875 miles of waterways for river traffic.

The climate of French Indo-China is dominated by the south-west and the north-east monsoons, as in India, and the country falls into three climatic regions, the northern, central and southern. The northern region comprising northern Annam, Tongking and northern Laos is rather cold in winter, and the monsoon rains from April to October are accompanied by strong breezes and violent storms. The conditions in central Annam are similar to those in Madras, while in the southern region, comprising southern Annam, Cochin-China and Cambodia, the temperatures are high and the rainfall heavy.

People. The chief people of French Indo-China are the **Annamites**, who occupy the deltaic regions of Tongking and Cochin-China and the coastlands of Annam. They are a peaceable and hardworking people and have been under Chinese influence for ages, so that their religion is Confucianism or a modified Buddhism and their written language is similar to Chinese. The **Khmers**, or the people of Cambodia, are a much taller and stronger people, and had evolved a high order of civilization in the eighth century, the ancient monuments and magnificent ruins, particularly those of Angkor, testifying to their greatness. Hindu culture seems to have influenced these people, whose social organization is based on the caste system and whose religion is a blending of Brahminism and animism. The **Lao people**, like the Shans, belong to the Thai race, the same race as the Siamese and the Burmese.

Products. The three climatic regions are also the chief economic regions. The southern region is one of the great rice-growing regions of the world. An active fishing industry is carried on, both along the coast and in the lakes and ponds of the interior. Cochin-China, the oldest colony, is the most prosperous part of the country, and the capital, **Saigon**, with a population of over 1 lakh, has the appearance of a French

provincial town. It is the business and commercial centre and principal port, while Cho-lon, close by, is the industrial centre. In these two towns, there are fifty-five rice mills and a few saw-mills, and soap and other factories. Cambodia also grows rice which is milled at Cho-lon and shipped at Saigon. Among other products may be mentioned maize and pepper from near the port of Kampot. Cattle-breeding is an important native occupation near Pnom-Penh. The latter is the capital and chief commercial centre of Cambodia, having a few rice mills, a cotton ginning mill and a silk factory. The central region is central Annam, with Hué as its capital and Tourane as its chief port. The region is largely agricultural and produces cinnamon, sugar and tea. There are vast untouched forests of valuable teak, ironwood and lacquer trees on the vast cordilleran plateau. The northern region in the hinterland of Haiphong is more developed than the central. Rice-growing is important, though the exportable surplus is insignificant. The large quantity of silk produced is mostly used by the native weavers. The mineral resources await development, though small quantities of coal, zinc, and tin are mined. The capital of Tongking is Hanoi, a modern city on the Red river to which the headquarters of French Indo-China were transferred from Saigon in 1902.

Commerce. Rice is the leading export; other exports are rubber, fish, coal, pepper, cattle and hides, corn, zinc and tin ores, the total value in 1936 being over 1,708 million francs. The principal imports are cotton and silk manufactures, metal goods, petroleum and motor vehicles, the total value in 1936 being over 975 million francs. India exported, in 1937-8, raw cotton and jute manufactures to the value of 63 lakhs of rupees and imported rice and other articles to the value of 5 lakhs. The trade of French Indo-China is chiefly with France, Hong Kong and China, and is in the hands of Europeans and Chinese.

Communications. The total railway mileage is about 2,100 and the principal railways are:

- (i) Saigon to the Mekong Delta at Mytho, about 50 miles.
- (ii) Pnom-Penh to Bangkok through Mongkol-bori, about 200 miles.

(iii) Hanoi along the Annam coast to Saigon, about 1,100 miles.

(iv) Hanoi north-eastwards to Nacham, about 100 miles.

(v) Haiphong by the Red River valley to Yunnanfu, about 550 miles.

The vessels of the Messageries-Maritimes and other companies—French, British and Japanese—visit Saigon, Tourane, and Haiphong regularly, while weekly air service is maintained between Marseilles and Saigon. Pnom-Penh is accessible to river steamers and the Siam Steam Navigation Company maintains services between Cambodian ports and Bangkok and Saigon.

French Indo-China is the base for the French colonial and imperial interests in the Far East. The importance of French Indo-China is in recent years, being increasingly recognized in view of the conflict of interests among the great powers of the world in the Far East, particularly in the matter of establishing their spheres of influence in China. Like other powers, France followed a policy in Yunnan similar to those pursued by Germany in Kiaochow, and Russia and Japan in Manchuria. She obtained a privileged economic position, by the treaties of 1885 and 1887, forcing China to give up her sovereignty over Annam, to create a French sphere of influence in southern China, and to allow special tariffs for the trade between Tongking and the provinces of Yunnan and Kwangsi. China also had to give special privileges to France in 1895 for railways in southern China, thus creating a situation in southern China with respect to France similar to that in Manchuria with respect to Russia and Japan.

With a weak China and undeveloped Italy, the defence of the French colonies did not present a big problem. On the contrary, the colonies were looked upon, during the Great War and until recently, as reservoirs of man-power for the defence of the homeland, as an inexhaustible source of supply from which to make good the declining population of the mother country. But the situation has materially altered with the Italian conquest of Abyssinia and the attendant shift in the Mediterranean balance of power. Not only is France's freedom to draw upon the military reserves now menaced, but the very security of the colony is seriously

threatened, and the menace grows with the advance of General Franco in Spain, and with Japanese progress in the Sino-Japanese War. The Japanese policy of aggrandisement on the Asiatic continent had long boded ill for Indo-China, but full realization of the danger came only when the Sino-Japanese War began. France has decided upon strengthening its colonial armies, which should primarily be meant for self-defence against outside attacks and aggression, and which should, only secondarily, be a reserve to draw upon in European eventualities.

5. THE EAST INDIES

The East Indies, or the Malay Archipelago, consist of a large number of islands, lying on both sides of the equator. These islands spread like huge festoons between the continents of Asia and Australia and stretch across 30° of latitude and 40° of longitude. The Archipelago falls into the following groups :

- (i) The Greater Sunda Islands comprising Sumatra, Java, Borneo and their satellite islands ;
- (ii) The Lesser Sunda Islands forming a festoon of smaller islands from Lombok eastward to Timor Laut ;
- (iii) Celebes ;
- (iv) The Moluccas ; and
- (v) The Philippines.

The total area is about 930,000 square miles and the population about $7\frac{1}{2}$ crores.

The islands enclose between them a large number of seas and straits, the chief of which are : the South China Sea between the south-eastern coast of Asia and the Philippines and Borneo ; Java Sea ; Sunda or Flores Sea ; and Banda Sea to the north of the Sunda Islands ; Arafura Sea between the Lesser Sunda Islands and Australia ; Celebes Sea and Sulu Sea between Borneo, the Celebes and the Philippines. The Strait of Malacca, between Malaya and Sumatra, the Strait of Macassar between Borneo and Celebes, the Molucca Passage between Celebes and the Moluccas are the chief straits in these waters.

Politically, the Archipelago falls into four divisions. The Philippines have passed from the hands of Spain to those

of the United States ; the north and north-west of Borneo is under British protection ; and the eastern half of the small island of Timor in the Lesser Sunda group belongs to Portugal. The remaining islands, which are in area, population and development, by far the most important of the East Indies, belong to the Dutch, and are constituted as the Netherlands Indies.

Physically, the archipelago is not a homogeneous region. The western part belongs to Asia, the eastern to Australia. The Indo-Malayan mountain system forms the mesozoic core flanked by tertiary formations. The granitic intrusions, in this central massif, form the greatest tin-region of the world, stretching from Siam and Burma, to the Malay peninsula and a large part of the East Indies, while the tertiary sediments give petroliferous strata which yield large quantities of mineral oil in Burma, Sumatra, Java and Borneo. The East Indies are further remarkable for their volcanic character, and volcanoes, active, dormant and extinct, are to be found throughout the archipelago. The rock-fragments and lava thrown out by the volcanoes at different times lie in deep layers and form the greater part of the highlands of the islands. The series of volcanic cones constitutes scenery of almost unsurpassed grandeur, perhaps nowhere better seen than in Java. The volcano in the little island of Krakatau between Sumatra and Java erupted with terrific force in 1883, destroying half the island and exposing to view, for the first time, a section of a volcano for the study of scientists.

The islands lie in the equatorial and tropical zones and the climate, tempered by the sea, is tropical and humid, and nowhere extreme except in the Philippines which are visited by the violent typhoons or hurricanes of the Pacific. In the equatorial belt, about 5° on either side of the equator, there is rain throughout the year, and there is no well-defined dry season. Farther north, the northern 'spring and summer' constitute the rainy season, while the 'autumn and winter' are dry.

A remarkable feature of the East Indies is its division into two main biological regions by Wallace's Line. This line passes between the islands of Bali, to the east of Java, and Lombok and passes through the Strait of Macassar northward by the outer limits of the Philippines. To the west of this line

is a vast submarine platform, or continental shelf suggesting a mighty subsidence of land severing south-eastern Asia from the Greater Sunda Islands, Borneo and the Philippines. To the east of Wallace's Line is a deep sea from the floor of which the Celebes, the Moluccas and the Lesser Sunda Islands are raised above the surface of the water. The continental shelf of Australia includes New Guinea and, with the exception of Celebes, all the eastern islands of the Archipelago have at one time formed part of the Australian continent. The biological features also point to this division of the East Indies into Asiatic and Australian groups. In the Asiatic group, the characteristic vegetation is the palm, bamboo, laurel and oak; in the Australian group we have the eucalyptus, the acacia and the cycads. The animals in the Asiatic group are those with which we are familiar in India; in the other group, we find the marsupials, cockatoos, cassowaries and birds of paradise, so characteristically associated with Australian fauna.

Numerous races have passed through the East Indian Archipelago in their migration eastwards with the result that there is today in the islands a jumble of races and languages, though Malay is generally understood for commercial purposes. Of ancient types, the Negritos (pygmies) are represented by the Aetas in the interior of the larger of the Philippine Islands, and traces of the Pre-Dravidians—dark-skinned, wavy-haired peoples, such as the Australian aborigines, the Veddas of Ceylon and certain jungle tribes of India—occur among the Batin of Sumatra and the Toala in the Celebes, while Haddon considers the Orang Kubu of southern Sumatra to represent another very primitive type of man. The majority of the tribes of the interior of the islands, however, have resulted from the intermixing of Indonesians and Pareoeans, who were the later immigrants. The Indonesians, or Nesiots, have tawny-coloured skins and narrow heads, and are akin to tribes living on the south-eastern seaboard of Asia. The Pareoeans, or southern mongoloids, have broad heads and are often termed Oceanic Mongols. These two ethnical groups have intermixed to such an extent that very few tribes of pure stock remain. From a special group of Oceanic Mongols there developed in Sumatra the true Malays. The Malays

crossed to the Malay peninsula in the twelfth century A.D. and by the end of the following century they had settled on the coasts of most of the islands.

In very early times, from the seventh to the fifteenth centuries, the Hindus extended their influence, culture and religion over Sumatra, Java, and Borneo. There are ruins of magnificent architecture, cities and temples, and stone sculpture. These and various religious beliefs and practices bear eloquent testimony to the high civilization introduced and developed by the Hindu colonists, nowhere more clearly seen, perhaps, than in the eastern part of Java and its small neighbouring island, Bali. But the Arab ascendancy ended the period of Hindu domination. The sixteenth century witnessed the advent of the Portuguese in eastern waters. They not only built up trading stations and settlements in Hormuz in the Persian Gulf and in India, but also penetrated the Strait of Malacca and Sumatra, emerging into the medley of island groups, and occupied the Moluccas or Spice Islands. Magellan, the great Spanish circumnavigator, discovered the Philippines in 1521 and brought them under the domination of Spain. The Portuguese were soon followed by the Dutch and the English, who formed their East India Companies for developing their trade with India and the Indies. The struggle for mastery was carried on during the seventeenth century and, after the massacre of Amboyna, the English were ousted from the Archipelago, retired from this contest for supremacy, and concentrated on India, while the Dutch remained the sole masters of the situation, so that they established their power over one island after another during the eighteenth century. Sumatra, Java and Celebes came early under the power of the Dutch, but the Moluccas had a period of native rule after the Portuguese were ousted and before the Dutch power asserted itself in the eighteenth century. Borneo was occupied by the Spaniards and the Portuguese early in the sixteenth century, towards the close of which the Dutch and the English entered the field. Here the contest lasted longer and though the greater part of the island now forms part of the Dutch East Indies, the north-western part remains under British protection. The British North Borneo Company obtained grants of a large area from the Sultans of Brunei and Sulu,

and British North Borneo, thus constituted, became in 1888 a British Protectorate, governed by the Company. An Englishman, Sir James Brooke, so won the favour of the Sultan of Brunei that he obtained in 1842 the territory of Sarawak, of which he constituted himself a hereditary Raja Brooke. Sarawak was recognized as an independent state under British protection, also in 1888. The present Raja Brooke is His Highness Sir Charles Brooke, who came to the gadi in 1917. The Portuguese, who at one time spread their influences far over the archipelago, have almost disappeared, the eastern half of Timor in the Lesser Sunda Islands being the only evidence of their one-time glory. Spain remained for long the power in the Philippines; but the Spanish-American War of 1898 led to its withdrawal from the islands and to the establishment of American sovereignty. The Dutch East India Company formed in 1602, thus achieved, in the archipelago, a mighty empire, for the tiny motherland. The company was dissolved in 1798, and the government was thereafter assumed by the Netherlands.

The interest that the East Indies have for India lies largely in the historical fact that the western group falls within her cultural orbit. Also several of these islands, particularly Java, compete with us in tropical and sub-tropical produce, such as sugar and tea, rubber and spices. The northern and north-western part of Borneo belongs to the British Empire, of which India is such an important constituent member. Further, the sea route from and to our great neighbours, China and Japan, passes through the Strait of Malacca which separates Malaya from Sumatra. Thus historically, commercially, politically and strategically, India has important points of contact with the great island festoons, where meet India, the Far East and Australia. The decline of China from its earlier power and prosperity, Japan's preoccupation with the mainland, India's and Australia's concentration on their own internal development—not less than the political control of the islands by a peaceful European nation like the Dutch—all these factors have so far kept the East Indies free from the clash of nations.

Java. This is the most important island of the archipelago, being the most fertile, the most highly cultivated,

the most densely populated and the best developed. The island is mountainous, several peaks attaining a height of about 10,000 feet, and is remarkable for the long succession of volcanic cones, some of which, like Mount Bromo, in the east, are still active. The chief mountain range lies along the whole length of the island nearer to the south coast, which is therefore bold and rocky; the northern coast is an alluvial plain important for rice and sugar cultivation, and along it lie the chief towns and ports. The rivers are not navigable and therefore do not play an important part in the development of the island. Java is in the southern hemisphere just outside the equatorial belt, but its climate is almost equatorial, with a range of hardly two degrees between seasons and with dry and wet seasons not clearly defined, the north-west and south-east monsoons bringing heavy rains to the southern and northern coasts respectively.

Java, with its satellite island, Madura, has an area of more than 50,000 square miles and a population of about $4\frac{1}{2}$ crores, thus giving the remarkable density of over 800 persons per square mile. The people are largely Javanese; the Chinese, Arabs and Indians do not form important elements, as is the case in Malaya; but it is remarkable that Java has about 2 lakhs of Europeans, mostly Dutch. It is thus a unique example of successful colonization of an equatorial region by white people. Large agricultural estates are developed by agricultural companies, European and Chinese, and plantation agriculture forms the most important industry. The Javanese, however, cultivate the greater part of the soil. Rice on irrigated fields is the principal crop, but in spite of this the great density of population makes it necessary to import rice. Maize and cassava (from which tapioca, a starch food, is obtained) are next in importance. Of the plantation products, the most important is sugar-cane, and Java ranks second only to Cuba as a producer of cane sugar. Java sugar used to be one of our leading imports, but recently the protective duties levied on imported sugar have considerably reduced these imports, and given a stimulus to the development of the sugar industry in India. Other plantation crops are tea, coffee, rubber, cinchona, tobacco, and cacao. Among the minerals, oil is of some importance in central Java. The trade is largely

with Singapore, but Holland, the United States and Great Britain also have a fairly large share. In 1937-8 India imported from Java, sugar and other articles worth about 37 lakhs of rupees, and exported to her gunny bags, rice and other articles worth about a crore of rupees.

Java has about 3,400 miles of railways connecting the three principal ports, **Batavia**, **Semarang** and **Surabaya**. Batavia, the capital, with its rivers and canals, is reminiscent of Holland, but the harbour is a few miles away at Tanjong Priok. Buitenzorg, about 35 miles to the south and about 750 feet high, is the chief hill station, presenting most lovely mountain scenery, and it possesses one of the finest botanical gardens in the world. Semarang is another port on the north coast, but it suffers from having an open roadstead; within 50 miles to the south, connected with it by railway, are the most populous towns of Java—Surakarta and Jekyakarta. Farther to the east is the beautiful natural harbour of Surabaya, the chief commercial centre of eastern Java. It is of interest to note that the ruins of Madjopait, the ancient Hindu capital, are at a short distance from this port.

There are many clusters of small islands off the coasts of Java. Krakatau, known for its terrific volcanic explosion, is in the Sunda Strait; along the northern coast, in the Java Sea, we come across the Thousand Islands, Carimon, Bawean and Kangean groups. Bali is a much larger island than these, and has a special interest for us, for the people are Malays with a strain of Hindu blood and still retain the Brahminical religion. Buleleng is the chief port and the capital.

Sumatra. The Dutch East Indies are generally divided into two parts, (i) Java and Madura, and (ii) the Outer Possessions. Of these last, Sumatra to the west of Java is three times as large, but has a much smaller population, about 50 lakhs. A high narrow mountain range, the Barisan (highest peak, Mount Dempo, 11,380 feet) lies along the island, a little towards the west, so that the west coast has a succession of volcanic cones, while on the east there is a wide alluvial plain. The eastern rivers are long, navigable and useful. The climate on the mountains is excellent, but on the plains very unhealthy on account of great heat and humidity.

Gutta-percha and camphor form important forest products, and among the peculiar animals mention may be made of the orang-utang. Sumatra is being rapidly developed, particularly in the rubber plantations in the east. Superior tobacco leaf for cigars is produced in the Deli district, which has also started producing tea. Oil palm plantations are being established and promise great success. Padang and Deli are large, important seaports, on the western and eastern coasts respectively. Among other important towns may be mentioned Kuta Raja, the capital of Achin in the north, with Oleleh as its port, Jambi in the eastern plains, and Palembang, the picturesque capital built largely on floating platforms. Both Jambi and Palembang are important for their oil-fields and Sumatra supplied over $1\frac{1}{2}$ crores of rupees' worth of mineral oil to India in 1937-8. Sumatra has about 1,200 miles of railways, the southern section connecting Telok Betong, the capital of the Lampungs, with Palembang, and the northern section, Marbau through Deli with Oleleh.

There are three groups of satellite islands on the east coast, the Rhio-Lingga, Bangka and Belitong. They are important for their tin deposits, being a prolongation of the tin-bearing Malayan mountains. Off the west coast, the chief islands are the Nias, the Mentawai and the Nassau.

Borneo. This is the largest island of the archipelago, but the most sparsely peopled, the population being less than 25 lakhs though the area is more than 200,000 square miles. It appears to be a fragment of a continental mass separated by the submergence of the connecting lands. From the central knot of Tebang (nearly 10,000 feet), mountain ranges radiate in all directions enclosing low alluvial valleys between them. The rivers are numerous and a few of them are large, navigable and useful; the chief of these are the Rejang, entering the South China Sea on the north by a delta; the Kapuas, flowing along the equator westwards; the Barito flowing southwards; and the Belajan-Mahakam flowing to the east. The equator bisects Borneo as it does Sumatra, and the two islands have much the same type of climate, vegetation and animal life. Some of the southern areas were under Hindu occupation in the middle ages, but in the interior the Dyaks and Kayans, and in the north-east the Sulus,

predominate. The most important product of Borneo is oil, the chief oil-fields being those of Balikpapan ; the same name is given to the neighbouring refining centre on the east coast. Borneo exported in 1937-8 64 lakhs of rupees' worth of mineral oil to India. Banjarmasin at the mouth of the Barito is an important centre of the coal-mining industry, and gold and diamonds are also extensively worked there.

Banjarmasin is the chief town of southern and eastern Borneo ; here people live in house-boats and pile dwellings. Pontianak is the principal centre on the delta of the Kapuas.

Celebes. Celebes has a most remarkable configuration, being like four limbs without a body. It has an area of 73,000 square miles and a population of about 42 lakhs. From Mount Koruvi, about 10,000 feet high, in the small central mass, four mountain arms shoot out, and there are no alluvial plains of any significance. Biological evidence suggests a great antiquity for the island and Wallace's Line separates it from the Greater Sunda Islands. The climate is equatorial and one of the healthiest in the archipelago. Dutch authority is effective only in Macassar in the south and Minahassa in the north-east, the rest of the island being ruled by the native rajas, only nominally under Dutch control. Macassar is redolent of antiquity. It was the Portuguese who really founded this great trade mart in 1625, and the Dutch came in after ousting them in 1660. The chief trade of the port consists of copra, rattan and macassar oil. Manado, the chief port of Minahassa, is important for copra, coffee and spices, the chief of which are nutmegs and mace. Celebes has valuable deposits of iron, manganese and nickel which await development, hydro-electric power being easily available. Sangihe, in the north and Buton, Tukong Besi and Salayer in the south are the chief satellite islands.

The Moluccas. These islands are known as the Spice Islands and consist of numerous small islands clustering round three larger islands, Halmahera, Ceram and Buru. The flora and fauna have Australian affinities, and of the spices, the nutmeg, clove and cardamom have been the most important. Halmahera and its satellite islands form a mountainous and volcanic group with Ternate as the chief port with a beautiful harbour. Ceram is the largest of the South Molucca Islands

and Amboyna, a small island in the south-west, has been known for its spices, particularly clove. The area is about 19,000 square miles and the population is about 9 lakhs, giving the lowest density in the archipelago.

The Lesser Sunda Islands. These stretch in a long chain from Lombok to Timor Laut. These islands have a definitely Australian character, biologically and even climatically, and are volcanic. **Lombok** is, for administrative purposes, linked with Bali and is inhabited by Balinese Hindus, and Sassaks who are Mohammedan Malays with a strain of Hindu blood. Mataram is the chief town and Ampanam, the port. **Sumbawa** is a larger island, and contains the great volcano of Tambora, the eruption of which in 1815 was hardly less disastrous than that of Krakatau. Nothing much is yet known of Flores, the next island eastward. **Solor** and **Allor** complete this cluster of islands which is distinct from other islands of the Lesser Sunda group. **Sumba** (or Sandalwood) and **Timor** diverge from the general trend of the Lombok-Allor cluster. **Savu**, a small island to the south-west of Timor, has a Hindu population. **Timor** has some rich copper deposits about 50 miles from Kupang, the capital and chief port. The eastern part is still held by the Portuguese. Excellent coffee is produced on the plantations, which are developing rapidly. The **Timor Laut Islands**, consisting of three chief islands, **Larat**, **Yamdena** and **Selaru**, are but little known.

The development of the Dutch East Indies in recent times has been very rapid. Coffee and sugar have been the most important of the Dutch colonial products; but plantation rubber has made romantic progress and led to the investment of large amounts of foreign capital in the archipelago. Dutch administration has now been liberalized and responsible government is set forth as the aim to be achieved in progressive stages. Efficiency of government has meant the opening-up of valuable lands, the carrying-out of intensive surveys, and the development of modern means of communication and transport, telegraph lines and railways, and the Dutch East Indies promise to achieve a position of increasing importance at the meeting-place of the Indian and Pacific Oceans.

British Borneo. This region falls into three divisions, **British North Borneo**, **Brunei** and **Sarawak**. **British North**

Borneo, governed by the British North Borneo Company, is mountainous. On the western coast rice grows well; on the northern and eastern coasts tobacco is extensively cultivated and plantation rubber is rising in importance as a product and as an export. Sandakan is the chief town. Brunei is a British Protectorate under a Sultan. The forests yield valuable timber; sago and rubber are important products. The chief trade is with Singapore via Labuan. Sarawak under Raja Brooke has its capital at Kuching in the west. Oil is being worked at Miri and Sibu, and the chief exports are rubber, oil, sago and pepper.

The Philippines. The Philippines are a group of over 7,000 islands and islets, the most important of which are Luzon in the north and Mindanao in the south. These are almost connected by Samar on the east and Panay, Negros and Mindoro on the west; while Masbate, Leyte, Sebu and Bohol occupy the spaces between them. The Philippines throw out arms which almost connect them with British North Borneo—Mindoro and Palawan Islands from Luzon, and the Sulu Islands from Mindanao. The Sulu Sea is enclosed between these islands. The area is well over 100,000 square miles and the population is over $1\frac{1}{4}$ crores. The islands are in the tropical zone, being between 5° and 20° N. latitude, in the monsoon area, the south-west monsoon in summer bringing rains from the west and the north-east monsoon in 'winter' from the east. The typhoons so characteristic of the China Seas originate to the east of the Philippines and mostly pass across the northern part. The seas probably represent the submergence of a continental mass, of which parts of higher mountain chains remain standing above the surface of the water. The islands are mountainous and, as in the Sunda Islands, volcanic activity has been the most prominent feature in the shaping of the Philippine scenery.

The rich basaltic soil is very fertile. The forests on the mountain slopes yield valuable timber, bamboos and rattans. The mineral wealth of the islands is believed to be great; but, so far, only gold mining seems to have been seriously undertaken, chiefly in the Baguio district in northern Luzon. The chief agricultural products are rice—the staple food crop of the people—and Manila hemp, very useful for rope-making,

produced and controlled by the Japanese. Coconut groves are numerous, and the output of copra and coconut oil is very large, so that for these commodities, the islands stand foremost in the world. Sugar, produced on the small farms, which are characteristic of agriculture in these islands, is a very valuable export, and tobacco grown in northern Luzon has acquired a great reputation for its use in the manufacture of the well-known Manila cigars. Rubber cultivation too has been started in the southern provinces. The trade is chiefly with the United States, which takes about 75 per cent of the exports and supplies 60 per cent of the imports. Siam and French Indo-China supply rice, Japan and Australia coal. Britain is a large purchaser of hemp, copra and coconut oil, and in the export trade ranks next to Japan which keenly competes with Britain in selling cotton cloth, and supplies silk, silk goods and sugar. Since the American occupation, the communications have been improved; there are 837 miles of railways, 705 in Luzon and 132 in Panay, and Sebu. Motor transport on the 7,000 miles of roads is fast developing.

Manila, the capital of Luzon, has an excellent harbour and is the chief commercial centre of the islands. American effort has been directed to make Manila a great entrepôt for the Far Eastern trade, but Singapore and Hong Kong are hard to beat in this respect. It has a famous observatory. Iloilo in Panay is the city second in importance. Other towns of note are Laoag and Legaspi in Luzon, Sebu in the island of that name, Zamboanga the chief town of Mindanao, and Puerto Princesa the chief town and port of Palawan. Baguio in north Luzon is the Simla of the Philippines.

The Philippines passed from Spanish to American control as a result of the War of 1898 between these two countries. The one remarkable fact about the population is that 91 per cent of the people are Christians. The islands are passing through a transitional period in their progress towards independence. The United States passed in 1934 the Tydings-McDuffie Act by which, in ten years, full independence was to be granted to the Filipinos who have proved their capacity for self-government. The Philippines are a problem to America. They represent American commercial penetration in the Far Eastern regions effected not by colonization or settlements but

by economic organization and investment ; and trade with them benefits America. From the strategic point of view they represent one of a large number of possessions of the Powers of the world who are keenly contesting for further aggrandisement, penetration and exploitation of the tropical and sub-tropical lands of the Far East. The Philippines play a remarkable part in the great problems of the Pacific. The rapidly developing Japanese expansion in China increases the perplexities of the problem and it occasions no surprise that the grant of independence to the Philippines has been postponed from 1946 to 1960, in view of the great tangle of irreconcilable interests, British, Dutch and Japanese, in those great island festoons, that make up the East Indies.

CHAPTER IV

SOUTHERN BORDERS

CEYLON

CEYLON geographically forms part of the Indian peninsula, though politically it is a Crown Colony, under a Governor assisted by a State Council. It is a pear-shaped pendant hanging from the Indian necklace like a pearl drop, studded with sapphires and emeralds. It has been known to the Hindus as the golden Lanka of King Ravana, the scene of the great epic struggle of the *Ramayana*, though scholars are now inclined to hold that the ancient Lanka was the island of Sumatra. The island has also been known as *Sinhaladwip*, the island of the Sinhalese, and as *Suvarna dwip*, the island of gold. The Arab navigators in the middle ages knew Ceylon as *Serendib*, while the Greeks and Romans called it *Taprobane* and the Hebrews, *Ophir*.

Ceylon is separated from India by the shallow Gulf of Manar and Palk Strait, though the islands of Rameswaram and Manar, which are linked with their respective mainlands, are almost connected with each other by the coral reef known as Adam's Bridge. There is no water channel deep enough to permit steamers to pass over this reef; and therefore they have to go south of Ceylon to pass from the Bay of Bengal to the Arabian Sea. That very fact brings within the range of possibility the construction of an Indo-Ceylon railway. A detailed survey was made in 1913, and the South Indian railway has been taken to Dhanushkodi Point, while the Ceylon Government railway has been extended to Talaimanar and only about 20 miles of railway on the reef remain to be constructed. A ferry service at present serves the needs of passenger and goods traffic between the mainland of India and its satellite island. Adam's Bridge is identified by the Hindus with the mythological bridge constructed by Shri Ramchandra for his invasion of Lanka, while it is also fancied by some to

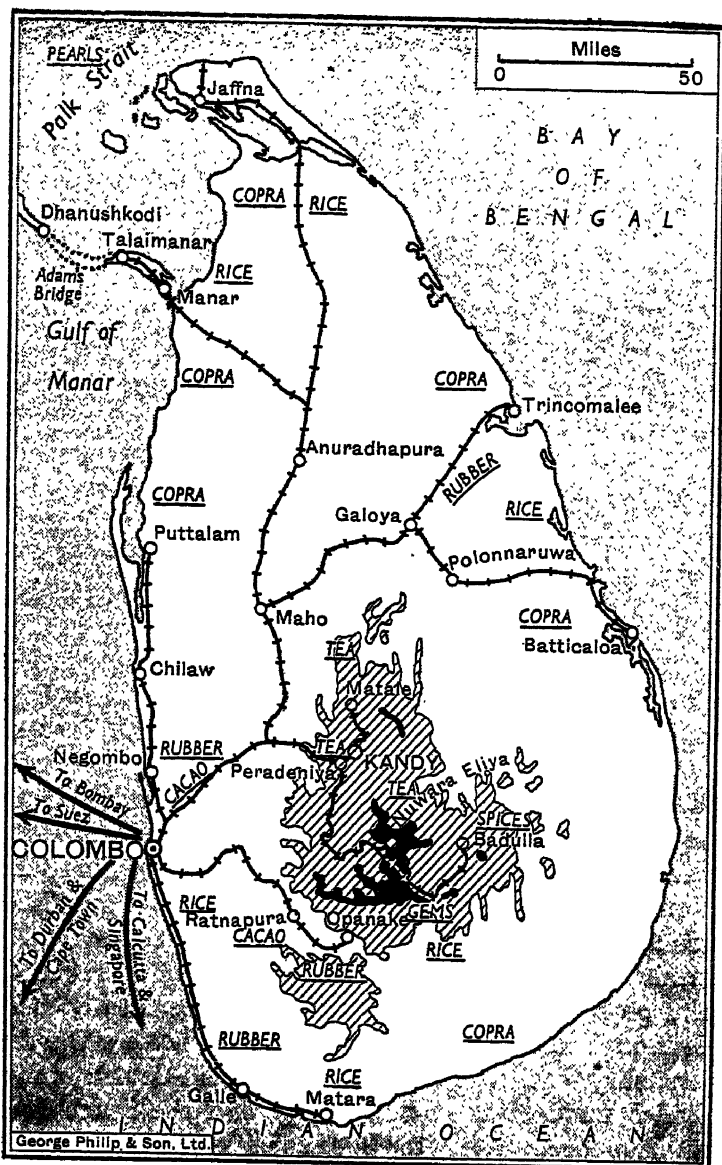


FIG. 29. Ceylon

Shaded area shows highlands over 1,000 feet, and black areas show highlands over 5,000 feet

be the bridge by which Adam and Eve, the progenitors of mankind, departed from the Garden of Eden, for this beautiful garden island of Ceylon, like the valley of Kashmir and the Vale of Gulistan, lays claim to be the original Eden.

Ceylon has an area of 25,000 square miles and a population of 53 lakhs, giving an average density of 208 per square mile. Of these 53 lakhs, 8 lakhs are immigrant Tamils from south India, forming about one-seventh of the whole population. In the sixth century B.C. Vijayasinh, a cousin of the Emperor Ashoka, led an expedition to Ceylon, and conquered it. From him the island took the name of Sinhaladwip, and the people came to be known as the Sinhalese; they form, even now, more than 70 per cent of the population. He gave to the island its principal religion, Buddhism, which is considerably coloured by the tenets and practices of Hinduism. Sinhalese kings ruled in Ceylon till the beginning of the nineteenth century.

Ceylon was, during all these years, rich and prosperous and the numerous temples, palaces, ruins of cities and great irrigation works bear testimony to its culture and affluence. Besides the Sinhalese and the Tamils, there are large numbers of Mohammedans, descendants of the old Moorish or Arab traders, a few Malays, Veddas, the remnants of the aboriginal people, and Europeans engaged in the plantation industries.

The Portuguese were the earliest European people to reach Ceylon; they occupied a few coastal tracts. They were ousted by the Dutch, who in turn were expelled by the British in 1796. The last Sinhalese king was dethroned in 1815, and the whole of Ceylon passed to Great Britain. Ceylon was attached to the Madras Presidency till 1802 when it was constituted a Crown Colony directly under the British Colonial Office. The constitution was liberalized in 1931, and the Governor is assisted by the State Council. The departments are placed under ten ministers, seven of whom are elected members of the Council.

Physical features. The island rises from the coasts to a central mountain mass, the rise being steeper from the south and gentler from the north, and the principal peaks are Pedrotallagalla, 8,300 feet and Adam's Peak, 7,350 feet. From this central divide, the rivers flow down to the plains in all directions; the Mahavilla, the longest, is about 150 miles

long and flows northwards to form the beautiful harbour of Trincomalee, an important naval station. Other rivers are short and not very useful, except where they are dammed to form large artificial lakes or tanks for irrigation, or where they empty themselves in lagoons fringed with coconut trees. The coasts are flat, backwaters are common and these expand into lagoons, as at Batticaloa and Puttalam. Since the island is situated between 5° and 10° N. latitude, the climate is almost equatorial though fairly healthy. The daily and seasonal ranges of temperature are small, and the temperature at Colombo shows but little variation from the average 80° . The charming hill station of Nuwara Eliya, 6,000 feet, has a cool and delightful climate, the mean temperature being 58° . Ceylon receives its rainfall from both the monsoons. The south-west summer monsoon gives heavy rain to the south-western parts from June to September, while the eastern provinces receive their most copious rainfall in November and December from the north-eastern monsoon. The northern and south-eastern parts are relatively dry regions, though even there the rainfall is about 40 inches.

The climate promotes a luxuriant growth of dense forests, large trees and flowering plants interlaced with creepers, which has made Ceylon a vast and fascinating garden, proverbial for its beauty among the beautiful islands of the tropics.

Products. The chief industry of the island is agriculture, and its agricultural and horticultural products are even more varied than those of most parts of India. Rice is an important product, especially in the south-west and north-east where irrigation is easy, but the total yield being insufficient, rice from India and Burma has to be imported. A larger acreage is under coconut trees, which fringe the coasts, particularly on the south-west. The coconut tree is one of the most useful in the world. The fresh kernel is used for food; the liquid inside makes a healthful drink; the dried kernel, copra, yields oil—which is used as an illuminant and lubricant, as a table oil and hair oil and for the making of soap and margarine; the hard shells serve for cups and ladles; the fibres from the husks are made into coarse brushes, brooms, mats and ropes; and the leaves are used for the thatching of roofs and the making of mats.

Ceylon was covered with extensive forests, but European enterprise has cleared the forests on the plains and lower slopes and has laid out large plantations, so that Ceylon is one of the most important islands for tropical plantation products, which include tea and coffee, cinchona and rubber, cardamoms, cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, pepper and other spices, vanilla and areca-nuts. Coffee, once the great staple article of export, suffered severely from the attacks of a fungus, and many coffee plantations have given place to tea, of which Ceylon is now one of the world's leading producers, next only to India and China. The tea gardens are largely located on the higher grounds in the hill region about Kandy and Nuwara Eliya. Rubber too is important, on the lowlands and the lower slopes of the hills in the Kelani valley and the Matale district. There are cacao plantations in the Kandy region, but they are declining in importance with the development of rubber production. Cinnamon is a characteristic spice, but Java has forged ahead in the production of cinnamon.

The only mineral of importance is plumbago or graphite, which is useful for the lead in pencils, as also for the making of stove blacking, axle grease and other lubricators. In recent years, two competitors, Madagascar and Korea, have been forging ahead, and plumbago-mining is not as important as before.

Ceylon is a land of jewels and sapphires, rubies, amethysts, moonstones, beryls, garnets, cat's-eyes and tourmalines are obtained from hundreds of small gem quarries. The trade is largely in the hands of the Moors and is centred at Kalutara. The pearl fisheries of the Gulf of Manar and the Bay of Trincomalee are of some note.

On tea, rubber and coconut plantations, the labour force is largely made up of the south Indian Tamil immigrants, but the cacao, cardamoms and some coconut plantations are worked by the Sinhalese. Indian emigration to Ceylon has been expanding in recent years. The expansion of the tea and rubber industries demands an increase in the labour force, while Government control has reduced the risks and hardships of emigration. Besides assisted Indian emigration, there is also free and voluntary immigration of Indians who find employment in urban areas as domestic servants, dock

labourers, rickshaw men, and also as merchants and traders, salesmen and mercantile assistants. An interesting feature of Indian labour immigration is its localization both as regards the region of origin and the region of absorption. Trichinopoly, Salem, Madura, Ramnad, Arcot, Tanjore and Pudukkottai supply more than 90 per cent. More than 50 per cent of the immigrants are concentrated in the Central Province of Ceylon, and about 40 per cent in the provinces of Sabaragamuwa and Uva. Recruitment has been conducted by the *kanganis*, who are Indian emigrants sent back to India for the specific purpose of finding labourers for colonial employment.

Commerce. Ceylon has a large foreign trade, the exports in 1936 amounting to 17.9 million and the imports to 14.3 million pounds sterling. The chief exports are tea, rubber, copra, coconut oil, coconut fresh and desiccated, coir and coir manufactures, cacao, citronella oil, areca-nuts and plumbago. The principal imports are rice, cotton manufactures, coal, sugar and manures. Great Britain dominates the export trade. Large quantities of tea, rubber and coconut products are shipped to London, partly for re-export, but the tendency towards direct trade is growing stronger, and large consignments of rubber and plumbago go to the United States, while Italy and Germany take large quantities of coconut products. The trade with India is also large, particularly the import trade. In 1937-8 imports from India amounted to 5½ crores of rupees, this being chiefly made up of rice and cotton manufactures, while exports to India were valued at 1.7 crores, copra and coconut oil being the most important items.

Communications. Ceylon has 950 miles of railway. The main line starts from Colombo and goes northwards to Jaffna via Anuradhapura a famous historical town. One branch goes to Talaimanar which is connected by a ferry service with Dhanushkodi Point, the terminus of the South Indian railway, and another to Trincomalee and Batticaloa. From Colombo, another line runs north to Puttalam; the south line goes along the coast to Galle and Matara. Another branch goes east up the highlands to Kandy, Nuwara Eliya and Badulla.

Colombo is the fifth port of the British Empire in point of tonnage of ships entering the port, and it has a large entrepôt trade, being the focus of all routes in the Indian Ocean. It is

about 1,000 miles from Bombay and more than 7,000 miles from England. It is the capital of Ceylon and has an excellent artificial harbour. The fine high breakwater and the lovely shore fringed with tall coconut palms give it a charming appearance. Kandy, the ancient capital of the Sinhalese kings, lies near the centre of the island, about 70 miles from Colombo by rail and is the holy city of the Buddhists. A few miles before the railway reaches Kandy, there is Peradeniya with its famous botanical gardens. Galle used to be an important port; it has a strong fort and a natural harbour. Trincomalee has a beautiful harbour and may develop, though its inaccessible position tends to limit its trade.

India's interest in Ceylon is many-sided. Geologically, Ceylon is a fragment of the Indian peninsular mainland; geographically it is a part of India; ethnologically, the people inhabiting it are of the same stock as the south Indians. It has had no history apart from southern India.

Politically, it was one of the bundle of states in south India till the advent of the Europeans, and even since then has been separated only for the last hundred years. Commercially, the attachment of Ceylon to southern India is very close. As an outlet for the surplus south Indian population, Ceylon has always been important. Strategically, its position on the sea routes across the Indian Ocean makes it of vital importance to India, and therefore to the British Empire of which India is such a valued constituent member, and it is this vital strategic position that is responsible for Great Britain's cutting it off from the political influence of India and reserving it for direct colonial

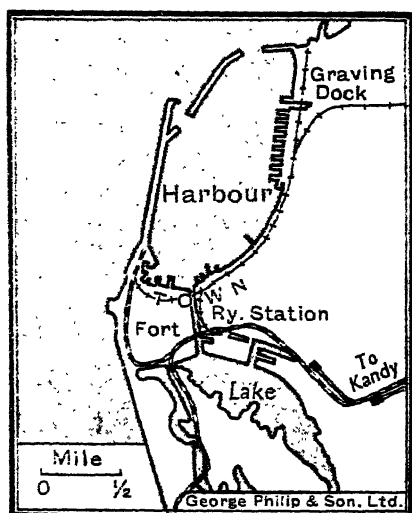


FIG. 30. Colombo

administration to safeguard its interests in the Indian Ocean and the Far East.

The Maldivé Islands are a group of small coral islands about 400 miles to the south-west of Ceylon. They are studded thickly with coconut palms. The population is about 80,000 and the people are Mohammedans. They are civilized and are great traders and navigators. The islands are governed by a Sultan and are a dependency of Ceylon.

CHAPTER V

ACROSS THE INDIAN OCEAN

NORTH-EASTERN AFRICA

(i) Egypt

EGYPT, or ' **Misar desh** ' as it was known in early times by Indians, is the lower basin of the Nile. The Nile, one of the longest rivers of the eastern hemisphere, has also been very important as the cradle of the Egyptian civilization, one of the earliest river-basin civilizations of the world. The search for its sources, for long a mystery, was a factor of importance in opening up the country to the south and to the establishment of European control, culture and civilization over the whole of the African continent. Its position, almost at the junction of Asia and Africa and at the convergence of the European routes in the Mediterranean Sea and the Indian Ocean routes through the Red Sea, from very early times, has given Egypt a commanding position for the development of commercial intercourse with three continents, and gives her an extremely important strategic position today. Conquered by the Turks shortly after their occupation of Constantinople, Egypt remained a dependency of the Turkish Empire, ruled by the Khedive, who gradually became almost independent, but who acknowledged the suzerainty of Turkey. The strategic importance of Egypt was greatly increased when the Suez Canal was constructed in 1869 under the auspices of three Governments, British, French and Egyptian. In the last century the withdrawal of French influence left Great Britain dominant in Egypt. Soon after the World War began in 1914, Egypt was formally declared to be a British Protectorate. On the termination of the War, the future of Egypt was the subject of protracted negotiations, which ended in the withdrawal of the British Protectorate and the establishment of a semi-independent kingdom there under King Fuad. The

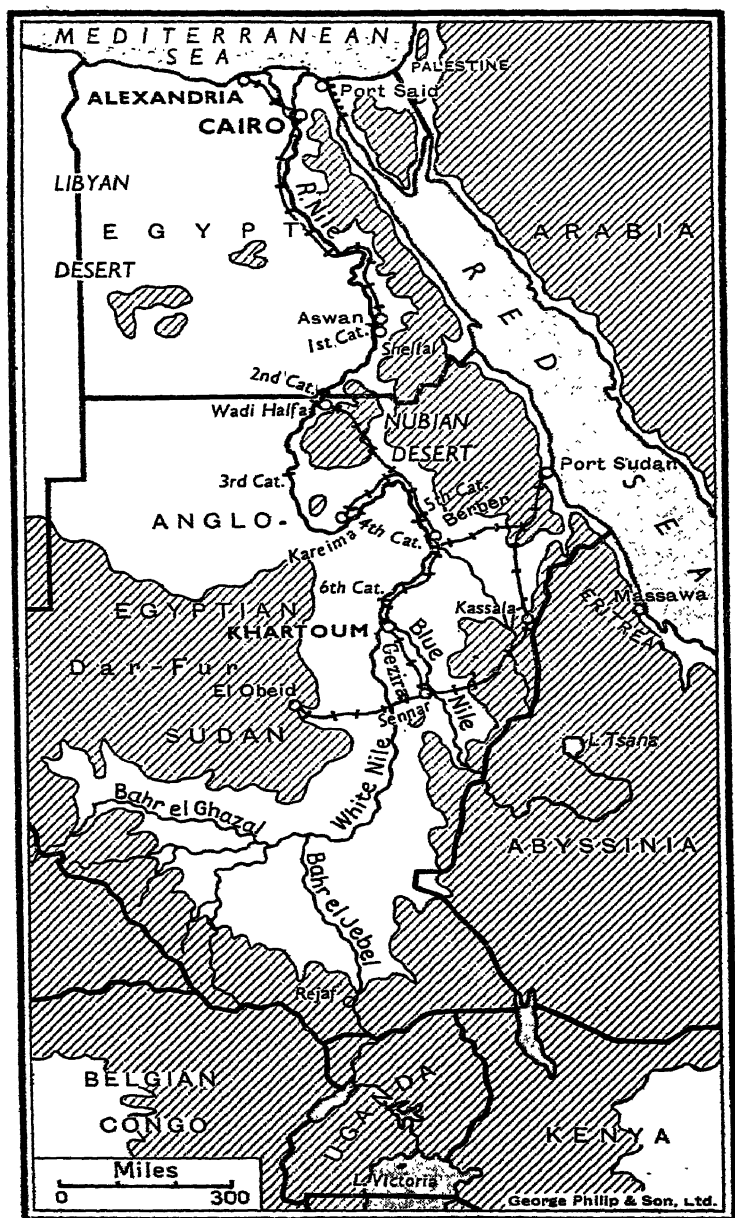


FIG. 31. The Nile basin
The shaded areas represent lands over 1,500 feet above sea level.

awakening of the people and their rapid progress led, however, to a desire for full independence and the withdrawal of British control; but the importance of Egypt in the matter of the defence of the Suez Canal and the Far Eastern trade route, as a source of a superior quality raw cotton and also in the matter of access to and the development of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, would not allow Great Britain to give up its control. Recently, however, satisfactory negotiations have been completed and a large measure of independence now accrues to Egypt, and the British troops will withdraw to the Suez Canal area at an early date.

The total area of Egypt, including the Libyan desert, the region between the Nile and the Red Sea, and the Sinai peninsula, is a little under 400,000 square miles, but the area, settled and cultivated, in the valley and delta of the Nile and the oases, is only about one-third of this. The population is a little under $1\frac{1}{2}$ crores, giving the very high density of 1,044 persons per square mile in the settled areas. Egypt lies in the desert-belt which stretches from Central Asia to Western Africa, and it is only between the Nile and the Red Sea that the land rises to heights of 2,000 feet or more.

The most conspicuous feature of Egypt is the great river Nile. Egypt owes so much to it, that the country has often been spoken of as the 'gift of the Nile'. Rising south of the equator in the highlands of Uganda, several streams unite to form the Kagera, which flows into Victoria Nyanza. The waters of this lake are dammed up by a narrow belt of undulating land on the north, which is broken only at Jinja where the Ripon Falls tumble into the Victoria Nile. This stream spreads out into Lakes Kioga and Kwanja and proceeds to fall into and emerge again from the shallow Albert Nyanza as the Bahr el Jebel or Upper Nile. In about 9° N. latitude the Bahr el Ghazal, draining the north-eastern slope of the Nile-Congo watershed and the Dar-Fur highlands, joins the main stream, which proceeds as the White Nile, meandering northwards through the grassy plains of the Sudan. In about 16° N. latitude, at Khartoum, it meets its most important tributary, the Blue Nile, a rapid and turbulent torrent, descending from the southern highlands of Abyssinia. The narrowing country between these two rivers is known as the Gezira plain.

The united streams continue northwards, and near Berber another important tributary, the Atbara, which drains the northern highlands of Abyssinia, has its confluence. The Nile now enters upon its final stage, flowing for about 1,800 miles as a single big river, receiving no affluent, and running through a very narrow cleft-like valley in the desert plateau, the cliffs bordering the alluvial plain rising to a height of over 100 feet. It is spurs of these highlands lying across the valley that give rise to the six great cataracts between

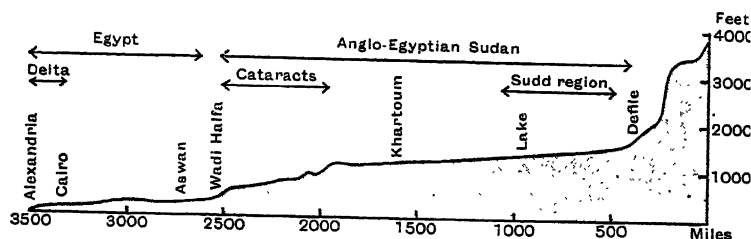


FIG. 32. Profile of the Nile

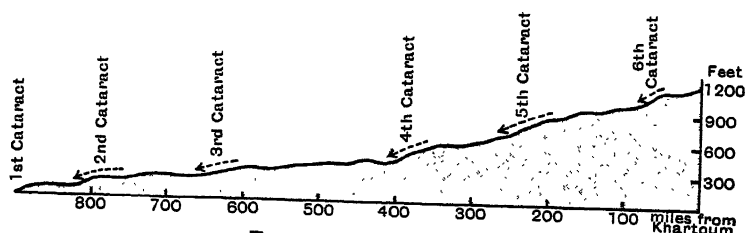


FIG. 33. Cataract region

Khartoum and Aswan which impede navigation. The Nile enters Egypt at Halfa, just south of the second cataract, and flows through a narrowing valley, till it emerges through a long gorge at Aswan at the first cataract. The long narrow valley ends at Cairo, where the river begins to split up into the countless distributaries which form the magnificent delta, the two major channels being the Rosetta and Damietta branches. The length of the delta along the Mediterranean shore line is over 150 miles, and the delta is one of the most fertile regions in North Africa. The Nile basin thus falls into five divisions, the sources in Uganda, the Upper and White

Nile basins in Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, the Lower Nile valley and the delta in Egypt.

The great importance of the Nile consists in the regularity of the periodic floods, which depend very largely on the summer rains and melting snows in the Abyssinian highlands. The

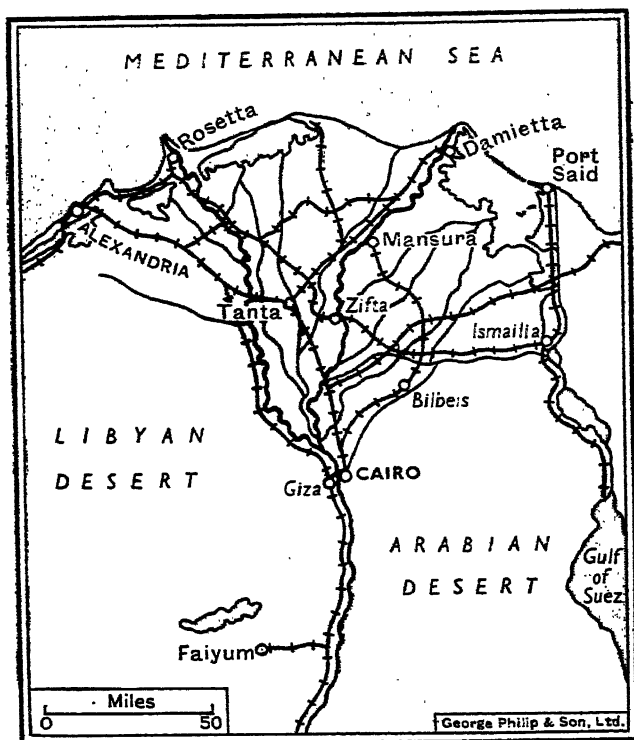


FIG. 34. The Nile delta

waters begin to rise early in June and the greatest height is attained early in October. The White Nile has nothing to do with these floods; it is the Blue Nile and, to a much smaller extent, the Atbara, which are really the source of supply for the annual inundations. On the regularity of the time and height of the floods depends the agricultural prosperity of Egypt. It is not only the water for irrigation which is important, but also the fresh layers of fertile soil that are supplied

by the flood waters, and the Nile waters are indeed the life-blood of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan and of Egypt. The recent conquest of Abyssinia by Italy gave rise to much uncertainty as regards the Blue Nile waters so vital to these countries, and the regulation of the outflow from Lake Tsana has been an important item in the Anglo-Italian negotiations, for any important diversion is bound to react very unfavourably on the whole agricultural economy of these Nile lands. A very large area is irrigated by inundation canals or the basin system. The fields form a series of basins demarcated by embankments, and cuts in the raised bank permit water to flow from the flooded river to these fields. The water is allowed to remain for about two months, after which it is drained back to the river, the level of which has fallen in the meantime, leaving the silt to renew and fertilize the soil. Perennial irrigation is now, however, of much greater importance to these countries, providing as it does for double cropping, and for years of poor floods. Dams have been constructed across the river at various places, the most important of these being the Delta barrage just north of Cairo, the Asyut barrage and the great Aswan dam. The total area irrigated from these dams is over 400,000 acres of land. In the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, the great Sennar dam on the Blue Nile irrigates the Gezira doab, and with increasing canalization an increasing acreage is being brought under cultivation.

Peoples. There is little information regarding the original people of this land, but the *fellahin* are probably direct descendants of the early cultivators. Their conservatism is the result of the uniformity of their environmental conditions, the regular and periodic overflow of the Nile enclosed between the Libyan desert on one side and the Arabian and Nubian deserts on the other. The 'fellah' has adopted Islam, but his religious practices have a tinge of the earlier cult of Isis. The remnants of the dominant race are the *Copts* who live chiefly in large towns. They are largely Christian and belong to the Greek church. The *Bedouins* are the nomadic Arab wanderers of the desert, with independence of character and pride, a response to their peculiar environment. They profess Islam, and were fanatical supporters of the *Mahdi*, but some of their tribes are very little influenced by

their religious beliefs. The Arabs of the towns have delicate features and white complexions. The Moslems form more than 90 per cent of the population, while the rest are largely Christians.

Products. For centuries the granary of the Byzantine Empire, Egypt is an important producer of **wheat**, which rivals **maize** and **durrah**, a kind of millet, in acreage. In recent years rice and sugar-cane have also been successfully introduced. Among fruit trees, the most important is the **date palm**, which flourishes along the banks of the Nile up to Fashoda, as also in the oases. The one crop of great economic importance, however, is **cotton**. Though not as important as the United States or India from the point of view of quantity, Egypt stands very high in quality, the Egyptian cotton being strong, lustrous and long-stapled, with the fibre about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, being next only to the 'sea-island' variety of America, and being definitely superior to the ordinary American and best Indian cottons. The dry climate, bright sunshine, freedom from frost, and an assured supply of water, due to perennial irrigation, have not only led to a superior quality but also to large yields per acre, the 400 lb. per acre of Egypt comparing very favourably with the 100 lb. per acre of India and the 200 lb. per acre of America. The best variety is the 'Sakel', which thrives in the Deltaic region, but the 'Ashmouni' which grows in Upper Egypt is also quite good. The mineral resources are not of great importance, the phosphate rock and petroleum obtained on the Red Sea coast being the only minerals worth mentioning. Building stone is quarried in different parts, granite near Aswan, and sandstone in the Nubian desert.

Commerce. The total exports amounted to 40 million and the imports to 38 million pounds sterling in 1937. Raw cotton is the predominant item among the exports, while the principal imports are textiles, chemicals, minerals, iron and steel products and machinery. The trade is chiefly with Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, India, and the United States. With India, Egypt carries on a fairly large trade, the exports to India in 1937-8 amounting to about 3 crores of rupees, the imports from India being about $1\frac{1}{2}$ crores. India supplies jute, raw and manufactured, Egypt supplies raw cotton.

Communications. The Nile is the great artery of life, and the great waterway, the river being navigable along

its whole length except where cataracts impede navigation. 3,422 miles of railways have been constructed, and the chief lines from Alexandria, Port Said, Ismailia and Suez converge on Cairo. From Cairo, the main line follows the Nile valley up to Aswan and a little farther to Shellal, whence the Sudan steamers connect with the railway from Halfa to Khartoum and Sennar, which was to continue southwards to meet the southern section of the proposed Cape to Cairo railway from Capetown. Imperial Airways maintain regular services between Egypt on the one hand and Europe, India and Australia and South Africa on the other. The most important town is Cairo which occupies a commanding position at the head of the delta. Its dry climate makes it a good winter resort for Europeans, and the attraction of ancient Egyptian ruins makes it a centre for tourist traffic.

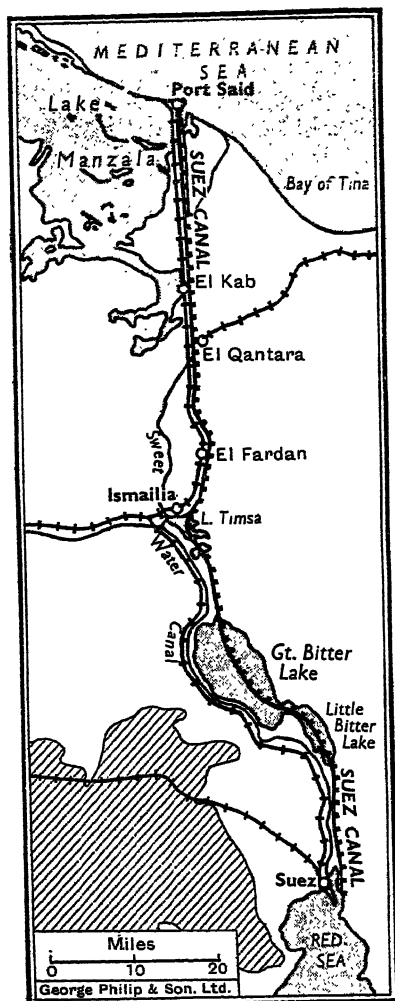


FIG. 35. The Suez Canal

Alexandria has an artificial harbour, and though it is a little to the west of the delta its good rail and canal connexions with Cairo serve it well, and make it the principal commercial port of Egypt.

The Suez Canal is the great waterway that connects the Mediterranean with the Red Sea and is an important means of communication between Europe and eastern Africa and southern and south-eastern Asia. The canal has been constructed wholly within Egyptian territory, where the Sinai peninsula joins the mainland at the narrow isthmus stretching from Port Said to Suez on the gulf of that name. It was constructed by the French engineer Ferdinand de Lesseps for the Suez Canal Company in 1869. The canal passes through flat land and through the Little and Great Bitter Lakes, Lakes Timsa and Balah. It has a length of about 100 miles, and had originally a breadth of about 100 yards and a depth of about 26 feet. The canal has, however, been widened and deepened. The great feature of the Suez Canal as contrasted with the Panama Canal is that there are no locks. Under a special convention, the canal is managed by an international commission. Great Britain has, however, great financial, commercial and political interests in the Suez Canal Company.

(ii) Anglo-Egyptian Sudan

This country stretches north to south from the southern borders of Egypt to Uganda and the Belgian Congo, and east to west from the Red Sea to French Equatorial Africa. The area is about 975,000 square miles and the population about 60 lakhs. The country was conquered by Mohammed Ali of Egypt and his successors. But the Egyptian rule was challenged by the Mahdi. Several attempts to suppress the revolt proved unsuccessful, and the Mahdi occupied Khartoum in 1885. The Sudan was practically abandoned for ten years thereafter, and the Mahdists held the Sudan for about thirteen years. In 1896, an Anglo-Egyptian army under Lord Kitchener advanced against the Mahdi's successor, the Khalifa, and after a campaign of two years, Omdurman, opposite Khartoum, was captured and in September 1898, the overthrow of the Khalifa was complete. According to a convention between Great Britain and Egypt, the country was then placed under the British and Egyptian flags, administered by a Governor-General appointed by Egypt, with the assent of Great Britain. Egyptian goods entering the Sudan are not

dutiable, and imports from other countries are charged at the same rate as is in force in Egypt. Egyptian troops were sent away in 1928 and a new Sudan Defence Force was created, but the latest Anglo-Egyptian treaty recognizes Egypt's claims to use her troops to assist in the defences of the country.

The Sudan is largely the Upper Nile basin, with parts of the Libyan and Nubian deserts in the north, and some highland fringes—the Abyssinian foothills in the east and the Dar-Fur highlands in the west. The Upper Nile has already been described, and the importance of the Blue Nile and the Atbara pointed out in connexion with the annual Nile floods.

The Sudanese belong to about twenty negro races of varied characters. There are the agricultural Nubians along the banks of the river in the north, and to the east are the pastoral Beja people. The north-western part is a desert belt and is inhabited by nomadic Arabs. The southern region is peopled with primitive races, while the Bantus are found in the highland areas.

The Sudan has been turned into an important cotton-producing country, the quality of the Sudan cotton comparing very favourably with that of Egyptian varieties. The Gezira plain is the great cotton area, irrigated by the canal system associated with the great Sennar dam on the Blue Nile. Other cotton areas are the 'delta' region of the Gash and the Baraka which issue from the Abyssinian highland and spread themselves fan-wise into swamps, between the Atbara and the Red Sea. Cotton also occupies a considerable acreage in the highlands of Kordofan and the northern provinces of Berber and Dongola. Gum arabic is another important product of the Sudan, which is the chief source of the world's supply of this product. Other products include sesame (til), senna, groundnuts, dates, dom nuts (vegetable ivory), and ivory. Durrah is the chief food crop of the Sudan. The country is important for live-stock, cattle, sheep, goats and camels being raised in very large numbers and supplying a large quantity of hides and skins. These products form the chief exports of the Sudan, the value of the raw cotton exceeding $3\frac{1}{2}$ million pounds sterling in 1936, and that of gum arabic being more than half a million pounds. The exports are chiefly sent to Great Britain; though Egypt, India, America and Italy claim an appreciable share. The

imports are chiefly derived from Great Britain and Egypt. Japan has improved its position very much in the Sudanese market in recent years, while India and Abyssinia are fairly important.

Communications. The railway mileage is over 2,000. The principal line is from Wadi Halfa to Khartoum, forming a chord, so to speak, to the Great Loop of the Nile. From Atbara near Berber on this line, a branch takes off to Port Sudan, the only commercial port of the country. Another branch connects with Sennar, which is connected westwards with El Obeid in Kordofan and north-eastwards with Port Sudan via Kassala, the centre of the Gash region and the nearest town for Eritrea. The Nile is navigable up to Rejaf on the Behr el Jebel, except for parts near the six cataracts. The first cataract is at Aswan and Shellal, which is connected by river steamer service with Halfa at the second cataract. Similar steamer service is maintained between Kerma at the third cataract and Kareima; and the latter is connected by a branch railway line with the Halfa-Khartoum railway. From Omdurman, the river is navigable to Rejaf. From Juba close to Rejaf, motor transport service is maintained all the year round with Uganda, the Belgian Congo and Kenya.

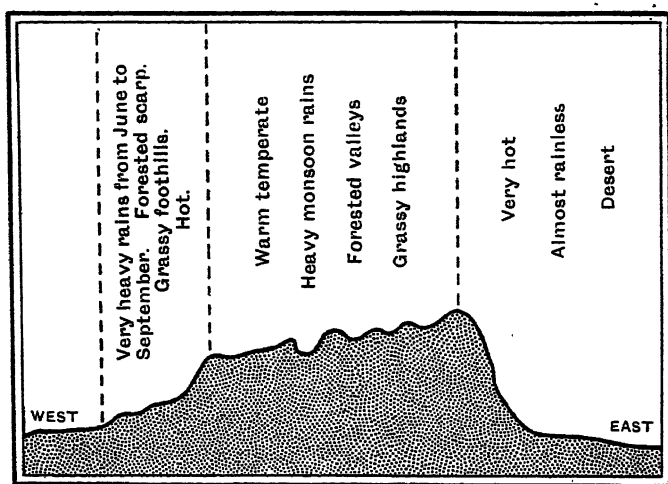
Khartoum, the capital, is growing in importance on account of its situation, at the confluence of the White and Blue Niles, commanding the developing Gezira doab. It has a population of less than 50,000 and in this respect it is surpassed by Omdurman on the opposite bank of the Nile which was the old Dervish capital and has a population of over 1 lakh. Suakin, the old port of Arab times, has now declined and Port Sudan has rapidly become the principal port.

(iii) Italian East Africa

(a) ABYSSINIA

East of the Upper Nile valley a horn-like protuberance juts out into the Arabian Sea, forming a region with a highland core in Abyssinia, sloping down precipitously towards the sea, the point of the horn being represented by Cape Guardafui. The sloping lands and coastal strips form Somaliland, but the triangular or funnel-shaped tract of lowland along the Red

Sea is Eritrea, which is an Italian Protectorate. Somaliland falls into two chief parts ; one faces the Gulf of Aden, and is under Great Britain, and the other lies along the Arabian Sea coast and is held by Italy. A small part of Somaliland, however, just opposite Yemen in the south-west corner of Arabia, and separated from it by the narrow Strait of Babel Mandeb, belongs to France. Politically this protuberance thus belongs to Italy, with the exception of French and British Somalilands, which occupy strategic situations for the routes from Europe to the Indian Ocean.



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FIG. 36. Section across Abyssinia

Abyssinia or Ethiopia is, geographically, the rugged plateau, about 8,000 feet high, bounded in the north by the Nubian desert, in the west by the Nile lowlands, in the south by the Omo-Sobat region and in the east and south-east by the East African rift valley. But, politically, Abyssinia has extended its boundaries on the other side of this rift valley and also on the south towards the Sudan-Kenya frontier.

The highlands consist of a block of Archaean gneiss and schists on which lava sheets have been laid. This volcanic debris has been so intensely eroded and dissected that the plateau has become mountainous, some mountains so formed

attaining heights of more than 15,000 feet. The deep clefts carved out by the Blue Nile and the Hawash divide the highlands into two parts. The northern part rises from the Danakil plains and the rift valley and has many high peaks. In the centre, there is Lake Tsana, occupying the Great Crater-hollow which is the chief source of the Blue Nile. This part of the country, comprising the provinces of Tigre, Amhara, Gojjam and Shoa, was the chief theatre of the Italo-Ethiopian War, the Italian armies advancing from Eritrea. The southern region consists of the Galla highlands. These descend gently towards the broad plateau and plains of Somaliland. The East African rift valley cuts across this region and forms a string of lakes, Zuway, Margherita, Stefanie, Rudolf and others. The Harar highlands are an eastern continuation, with the broad Danakil plains in the north and the Ogaden plateau in the south.

The country has no large rivers. The Atbara, the Blue Nile and the Sobat all join the White Nile; the Omo empties itself into Lake Rudolf; the Hawash loses itself in the swamps of the Danakil plains and the Juba and the Webi Shibeli flow south-eastwards to form the Somaliland coastal plain, which gets narrower and narrower northwards till it disappears completely at the Cape. The Webi Shibeli almost meets the sea near Mogadiscio, but sand-dunes turn it southwards along the coast, so that it loses itself in a swamp near the mouth of the Juba.

The varied configuration gives a varied climate. The highlands are cool, and the lower plateau and the plains have warm summers. In summer, the south-west monsoon winds establish their sway and yield a heavy rainfall to the Galla highlands. The direction of these winds being along the Somaliland coast, the maritime plains do not receive much rainfall. The monsoon sets in earlier in Abyssinia than in India, and the conditions there afford some basis for monsoon forecasts for the western coast of India, there being a definite correlation between the Abyssinian and Indian meteorological conditions.

Abyssinia has an ancient history and is believed to have been the home of the Queen of Sheba of the Scriptures. The people were converted to Christianity and are members of the

Coptic Church, under the Patriarch of Alexandria. Ethnographically, the people represent a mixture of various tribes and races. The dominant people are of Hamitic origin, affected considerably by Semitic intrusions from Arabia and by intermarriage with the negro races. The Gallas, a pastoral and agricultural people, rearing sheep and goats and camels, comprise about one-half of the population found in the Ogaden and Somaliland plateaux. There are negroes in the south-west, and the Falashas, who claim to be of Jewish origin, are in the north-east. The chief religions are Christianity and Mohammedanism, the Danakil and some of the Gallas being followers of Islam.

The Harar chieftain Mohammed Granye established his power over the country in the middle of the sixteenth century A.D. But in the following century, when the Portuguese Jesuits explored the land, the dominance had passed on to the chiefs of Tigre. The next century saw the power in the hands of the people of Amhara. In 1889, however, Menelik of Shoa assumed the sovereignty as Negus. Throughout the period of European exploration and enterprise, Abyssinia retained its independence and escaped being drawn into the net in the European scramble for other parts of Africa. Great Britain, however, was involved, in 1867, in a small war with King Theodore of Abyssinia; later on, Italy tried to establish a protectorate over the country; but the disaster that befell the Italian army at Adowa led to the abandonment of the idea till recently, when Signor Mussolini revived it, conquered the country in spite of the brave resistance offered by the Negus, Haile Selassie and his chieftains, and annexed it to the Italian Empire. The conquest of Abyssinia removes the only country in Africa that was independent of European control and introduces a new phase in international politics. Eritrea, Abyssinia and Italian Somaliland now form a compact block of territory under Italy, and with Libya or Tripoli also Italian, this constitutes a serious menace to the safety and peace of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. The security of the Red Sea route via Aden, to the Arabian Sea and the Far East, also is endangered by Italy's Ethiopian Empire.

Abyssinia is largely agricultural and pastoral. Coffee is the most important product, the Harari coffee being a

superior variety like the Mocha of Yemen. Besides this cultivated variety, Abyssinian coffee grows wild in extensive forests in southern and western Abyssinia. Durrah is the principal food crop, and cotton, sugar-cane, the date palm and vine thrive well in many districts with a sub-tropical climate. Pasturage is rich in many parts, and cattle, sheep and goats are numerous. The country has not been fully surveyed, and good mineral deposits may be discovered. In the western areas, gold and platinum have been worked to some extent. Petroleum is believed to exist in fair quantities. The north-eastern region is rich in potash salts.

The principal exports consist of hides and skins, coffee, grain, wax, civet, and the skins of civet cats reared specially in Kaffa. Foreign trade has not developed much, but it is of interest to note that among the foreigners who have settled in Abyssinia, the Arabs and Indians are most prominent in trade and commerce. Indian cotton piecegoods found a good market there before the Italian conquest.

The mountainous nature of Abyssinia is responsible for making transport extremely difficult. There are no good roads, and mules, pack-horses, donkeys and camels are used as beasts of burden. The only railway operating in the land is the Franco-Ethiopian railway between Addis Ababa, the capital, and Jibuti, the port of French Somaliland. The traffic is so small that daily service and running by night are not necessary, and the short journey of about 500 miles takes three days. Italy has acquired financial interest in this railway since 1935, and road construction is being earnestly taken in hand.

There are few large towns: Addis Ababa, Dire-Dawa and Harar are the most important. Addis Ababa, with more than a lakh of inhabitants, is the capital and Harar, near the Somali frontier, is an important commercial centre. In both these towns there are large numbers of Indians and Arabs, Greeks and Armenians. Among other towns may be mentioned Adowa the chief town of Tigre, Aksum the former ecclesiastical centre, and Gondar the chief town of Amhara.

(b) ERITREA

This little funnel-shaped country is an Italian colony with an area of about 46,000 square miles and a population of

about 6 lakhs. Its name *Eritrea* or *Erythraea*, is derived from the classical name of the Red Sea, the *Erythraean Sea*. On its western border there is the escarpment of the Abyssinian highlands; on the south, lie the uplands of Danakil and on the east, there is the narrow coastal plain with a coastline of about 670 miles.¹

The people belong mainly to the Hamitic tribes, the Danakils being the most important. As in Abyssinia, the chief religions are Coptic Christianity and Islam. The political connexion of Italy with Eritrea dates from 1880, when Italy took over Assab from a trading company. Massawa was taken over in 1885 when the Egyptian garrison withdrew, and, shortly after, the whole of Eritrea was annexed and an Italian protectorate over Abyssinia was proclaimed. Menelik's victory at Adowa, however, led to the restriction of the Italian influence to the arid coastal tracts of Eritrea.

The country can be divided into two chief regions, the lowlands and the uplands. The lowlands have a tropical climate with rain in the cooler season, while the uplands have a cooler climate with rain in summer. Rainfall, in general, is sufficient, and irrigation works, that are being pushed on under Italian enterprise, facilitate intensive farming in cotton and millet. Pasture is also abundant, but the people are partly nomadic. The only important natural products are salt from three saline areas, dried-up lakes and lagoons, and pearls obtained from the fisheries in the Dahlak archipelago.

The only important port is **Massawa**, which is situated on a small coral island and connected with the mainland by a short railway line to **Asmara**, the headquarters of the Government. From Asmara, the line proceeds to Cheren and Agordat, whence it is further extended to Tessenei. Wireless communication with Italy has been established, and there are wireless telegraph stations at Massawa, Assab and Asmara. Eritrea is not of much value, except as a route to Ethiopia and to Kassala and the Atbara region of the Sudan, and as a base for Italian influence in the Strait of Bab el Mandeb.

¹ Since June 1936, the districts of Tigre, Danakil, and Haussa have been transferred from Abyssinia to Eritrea.

(c) ITALIAN SOMALILAND

This Italian colony extends along the east coast of the Horn from British Somaliland to Kenya. The western boundaries long continued to be indefinite, but the annexation of Ethiopia has put an end to the difficulties of demarcation and on the south-west, under the colonial readjustments at the end of the Great War, Jubaland was ceded by Great Britain to Italy. The country consists of a plateau descending by steep scarps to the ocean, and the coastal plain, narrow in the north, widens out towards the south in the regions of the **Webi Shibeli** and the **Juba**. Somaliland may be divided into two zones, northern and southern. In northern Somalia, there is practically no agriculture at all and the scanty population carries on a little cattle and sheep-rearing. Southern Somalia, known formerly as Benadir, is inhabited and cultivated in the two river basins for til, millet and cotton. The population is only a little over 10 lakhs, though the area is relatively very large, being about 200,000 square miles. There are very few Italian colonists, as yet less than 2,000 in number. The natives are Somalis—a pastoral, nomadic people. In the south, in the region of the Webi Shibeli, there are a few Bantu negro tribes and a few Gallas. The trade of the colony is small, the exports consisting chiefly of til oil, ghee, hides, gums, resin and ivory, and a little cotton.

Mogadiscio is the capital and the chief port and serves the basin of the Webi Shibeli by a short railway (70 miles). The cession of Jubaland has given the country another seaport, **Kismayu**, at the mouth of the Juba.

This colony like that of Eritrea has no particular value of its own, except in connexion with the development of Ethiopia and the strengthening of Italian influence in the Gulf of Aden.

(iv) British Somaliland

The area of this protectorate is about 68,000 square miles with a population of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs. The people are Mohammedans, nomadic Somali tribes, who have, however, settled down on the coast, where several towns of importance have sprung up since the occupation of the land by the British. The coastal plain is a very narrow one and is backed by steep

scarps, continuations of the highlands of Harar and the offshoot of the East African rift valley, which branches off from the main valley where the Hawash emerges on to the Danakil uplands. The northern border is a tract of waterless desert, the Haud.

This country, like Eritrea, was under Egyptian control, but on the withdrawal of Egyptian troops in 1884, it was placed under the Government of India. This was a recognition of India's special interests in the Indian Ocean and the routes to Europe via the Red Sea. But as in the case of Aden, the control of India was terminated, and Somaliland was placed under the Foreign Office in October 1898, and under the Colonial Office from April 1905. The Indian rupee is still the basis of currency, however, and Government of India notes are in circulation. The trade is small and the exports consist of hides and skins, gums, resin and ghee while the imports are chiefly rice, dates, sugar and textiles. Berbera is the capital and has a population of about 15,000, but in the cool season the population goes up to about 30,000. Other towns of some note are Hergeisa, Burao and Zeila. Transport is still primitive and the camel continues to hold its own.

(v) French Somaliland

This little colony is sandwiched between British Somaliland and Italian Eritrea. But it has a very important strategic position, commanding the Strait of Bab el Mandeb. Obok was acquired by the French in 1862, but not occupied till 1884. Soon afterwards the other parts were acquired and the country was delimited by agreement with Great Britain. The port of Jibuti was created in 1888. The colony has an area of about 8,500 square miles with a population of a little over 44,000, made up chiefly of Somalis and Danakils. About 4,000 Arabs and 250 Hindus are also to be found and they are important in the commerce of the colony. The land is quite dry, and salt is the only product of any importance. The construction of the railway to Addis Ababa has given importance to the port of Jibuti, so that Obok is reduced to a secondary position. Apart from its strategic significance, the colony has little value except as affording a trade route to Abyssinia.

2. KENYA AND UGANDA

Kenya Colony and Protectorate extend from the Indian Ocean to Lake Victoria and Uganda, and from Tanganyika

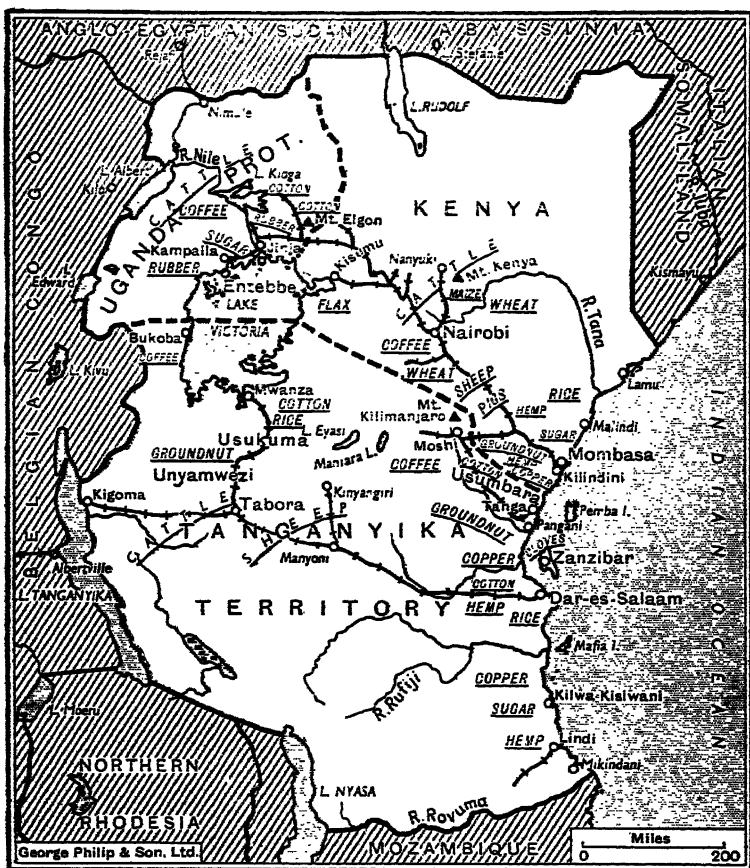


FIG. 37. Kenya and Tanganyika

to a rather ill-defined frontier on the north with the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan and Ethiopia. The coastal strip, ten miles wide, as far north as the northern branch of the Tana river, and the small islands between this river and the Uмба, are the mainland dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar and are

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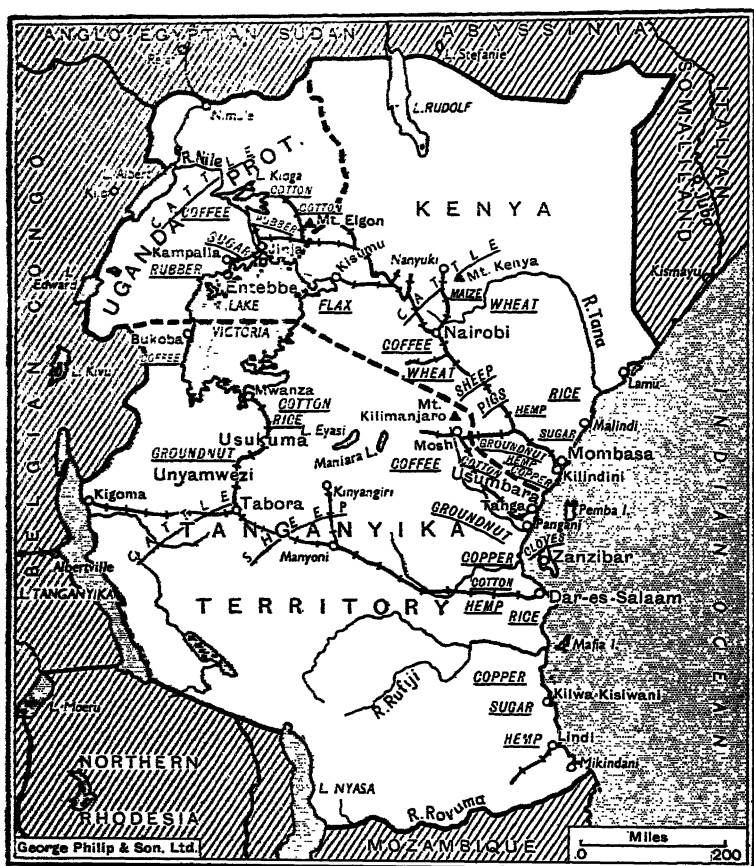
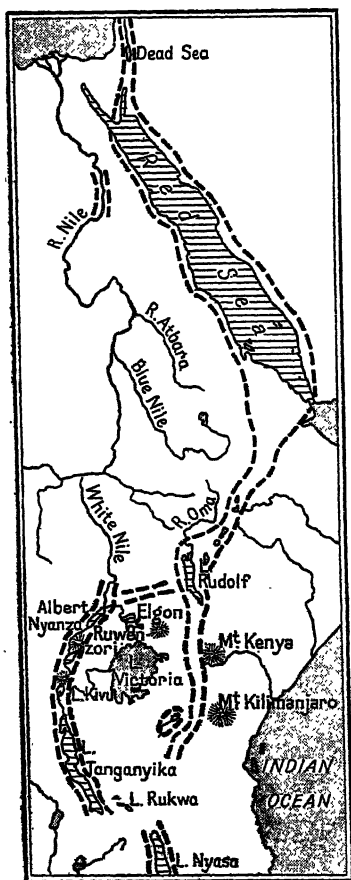
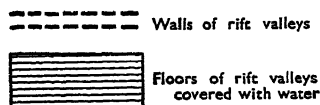


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administered as the Kenya Protectorate by the Colonial Office of Great Britain, the Colony having been under a Governor



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FIG. 38. The East African rift valley

since 1920. A stretch of territory from 50 to 100 miles wide on the west of the Juba river was ceded to Italy in 1925. The colony has been divided into four provinces, **Coast** with its capital at Mombasa, **Central** with its capital at Nairobi, **Rift Valley** with its capital at Nakuru, and **Nyanza** (the lake region) with its capital at Kisumu. Besides these regular provinces, there are three other districts, the Northern Frontier, Turkana and Masai.

The area of the Colony and Protectorate is about 225,000 square miles and the population is estimated at 33 lakhs which includes about 18,000 Europeans, 42,000 Asiatics, mostly Indians, and 13,000 Arabs. The general configuration of this country is not complicated ; we can easily mark out a series of zones almost parallel to the coast. There is the low coastal plain with islands fringing the coast, narrow in the south opposite Mombasa, but widening out northwards in the Tsana valley. A steep slope leads to the plateau, undulating barren country, known as the Nyika. West of the plateau, we have the volcanic region of the great

East African rift valley, which has clefts and depressions sometimes a mile deep and 50 miles wide, with precipitous walls

thickly forested, and with a string of lakes at the bottom without any outlet to the sea. This great rift continues northward through Ethiopia, the Red Sea and the Jordan valley and southwards through Lake Nyasa to the Shiré valley. From the northern end of Lake Nyasa a curved branch runs north and in this western rift lie Lake Tanganyika, and Lakes Albert and Edward the sources of the Nile, and it is on the plateau between these two rifts that the great Lake Victoria is situated. A strip on the sea coast, too dry in the north, with rain enough in the south; a vast desert in which the lion, the rhinoceros, the zebra, the giraffe and the antelope far outnumber its human tenants, a desert that covers nearly 200,000 square miles out of the total area of 240,000; in the south-western quadrant, a fertile island of mountain and valley, and lake and plateau and forest, some 35,000 square miles large; to the west a lake as large as a sea with a fertile plain between lake and mountains. This is how Mr Norman Leys summarizes Kenya, in his book *Kenya*.

The coastal tracts and the island fringe were originally occupied by the Bantu tribes. The Arab, Baluchi and Hindu traders, however, settled along the coasts centuries ago and held their own till the advent of the Portuguese. Vasco da Gama realized the importance of the East African ports for the safeguarding of the Cape route to India, and the Portuguese erected forts at Mombasa, Malindi and Lamu. For two centuries the Portuguese attempted to retain the monopoly of the increasing sea-borne trade with India. However, India and the Spice Islands claimed greater commercial interest than Africa, and the altitude of the Portuguese is seen in the names of African ports, such as Algoa and Delagoa meaning to and from Goa respectively. But with the downfall of that empire in India, the East African colonies declined in importance; English, Dutch and French adventurers soon made inroads, and the Arabs regained control of the coast north of Mozambique.

The significance of this failure of a European enterprise in tropical Africa is great. No attempt could have been more determined or more heroic than that of the Portuguese. Nothing, however, remains of their large settlements on the great East African river, the Zambezi, nor of the once flourishing

Jesuit missions. Indeed, all invasions of Africa have the same tale to unfold. The Romans and the Vandals went no farther south than the tropic of Cancer. The Moslem conquest was for long arrested near the same tropic. The key to the history and the fate of the invasions lies probably in the diseases of tropical and equatorial Africa, which produce illnesses of infinite duration and bring about the gradual loss of energy and hardihood. The immunity from invasions which Africa thus obtained has been a great disaster to the people, who were left isolated from the cultures and civilizations of the northern peoples, and who could not march with the times and achieve any great civilization of their own.

A prominent feature of life in Africa has been the wasteful institution of slavery. The coast Arabs employed slaves, who tilled the soil and also filled positions of responsibility. Even fifty years ago, no one except the Baluch soldiers in the fort at Mombasa worked for wages. The introduction of the cultivation of cloves in Zanzibar and Pemba and the use of machinery in the manufacture of fire-arms cheapened the slaves and increased the scope for their profitable employment. The Slave Coast proper, however, extended from Mount Kilimanjaro to the Zambezi, and a regular slave trade was carried on at places like Tabora, Ujiji and Kota Kota, depots where smaller parties of slaves were organized into large caravans. The slave routes converged on the ports of Pangani, Kilwa, Lindi and Quelimane, whence the slaves were shipped for sale to Zanzibar or Muscat or sent to the Mozambique Channel for transshipment into American vessels. The slave trade in East Africa took long to be suppressed, chiefly because of numerous creeks and islands on the coast which prevented larger ships from operating effectively, and where small dhows easily escaped with their human cargo. The slave trade has gone now, but its legacy is that the African regards the European as a person who inexorably demands that the African should sweat so that he might get the sweets, and he sees him definitely as an exploiter.

The attention of Europe was focused on Africa again in the nineteenth century, when the Portuguese possessions had dwindled to a few scattered fortified ports between Mozambique

and the Zambezi. European industrialization demanded further sources of raw materials ; vacant spaces in the Pacific, the Far East and southern and western Asia had been filled up by European enterprise ; South America was a closed world on account of the Monroe Doctrine of the United States. Thus Africa was the only large free realm in which colonial trade and political power could be won, and the penetration of Africa began. The explorations in the first half of the century awakened public interest in Africa, and explorers like Stanley and Livingstone did much to remove the mystery of the Dark Continent. The explorers stimulated the missionaries, who in turn brought about the advent of the trader, to protect whom came the soldier and the flag. Then followed a general European scramble for territory and a rush for the partition of Africa, so that exploration soon resolved itself into partition and appropriation for exploitation. While France was active in the north, and England was busy both in the north and extreme south, Portugal advanced claims to the hinterland of Mozambique, Belgium to the Congo Free State, and Germany acquired a foothold on the shores opposite Zanzibar in 1884. Great Britain promptly countered by the occupation of Mombasa and the acceptance of a protectorate over the dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar in 1888. The British East Africa Company sent out numerous expeditions into the interior, established stations and occupied Uganda, and in 1885 handed over the administration of the territories thus appropriated to the British Government.

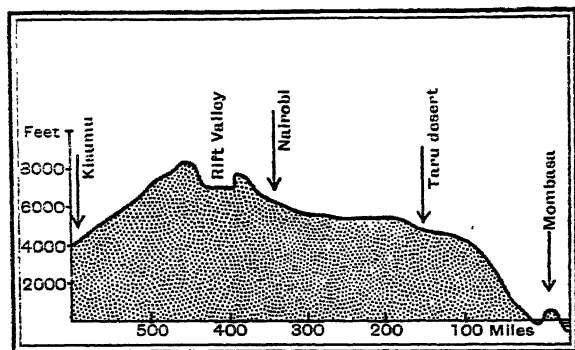
The British intrusion in East Africa was due partly to the desire to stop the slave trade and to protect the missionaries from the slavers, and partly to the demands and needs of Indian settlers. Then and thereafter practically all the trade of Eastern Africa was in the hands of Indians. Indian troops had materially assisted in the conquest of Uganda ; tropical colonization in Kenya was not yet seriously considered ; and East Africa was regarded as India's America, a field for Indian colonization.

The latter half of the nineteenth century thus transformed Africa from an unknown mystery into a field for European colonial enterprise, so that international relationships today are profoundly affected by the African situation. The transfer,

as mandates, after the Great War, of the four German colonies of Togoland, the Cameroons, South-West Africa and East Africa to France and Britain, with small slices to Belgium and Portugal, raises a question of the first magnitude—the German demand for the restoration of its colonies. Germany holds that colonies are essential as outlets for her rapidly increasing population. Her interest also lies in the development of the plantation system, adopted so profitably by the Dutch in the East Indies, and the use of native labour for the production of tropical raw materials. In these colonies, Germany saw the possibilities of controlled sources for raw cotton and palm oil. The mandatory powers are just as keen to retain these colonies as Germany is to regain them and this introduces a position of great instability in international equilibrium. The instability is intensified by the fact that great racial problems also clamour for solution, and they seem to be almost insoluble. The Africans for centuries have suffered untold miseries, and such wrongs do not purify but sear men's hearts and warp their minds. The spirit of nationalism is in the air and the Africans resent white domination as strongly as do other coloured peoples. Besides, the problem of the Indian settlers is also adding to the complexities of the situation, and British East Africa is the ground where the clash of races and nationalities is being fought out.

The coastal plain is in parts densely forested, and ebony and rubber are the most important products, though rice, coconuts and sisal hemp are also grown. The main producing areas are, however, the highlands, where coffee, maize, wheat, sisal hemp, wattle and cotton are prominent. In the higher parts of the plateau, temperate fruits thrive well, and the grasslands afford excellent pasture for sheep and cattle. The dairying and wool industries are increasing in importance. In addition to these, oil-seeds like groundnuts and til (simsim) are grown in climatically suitable areas. Ostrich-farming has also been established in some of the drier parts of the colony. The highland forests yield valuable products like olives and camphor. Pencil cedar thrives, and the bamboo promises to yield material for paper-pulp. The mineral resources of the colony have not yet been sufficiently explored; some gold has been found, and also some marble and limestone.

The trade of Kenya and Uganda has developed in recent years and in 1936 amounted to about 15 million pounds sterling, the imports being a little less than the exports. The chief exports were raw cotton mainly from Uganda, coffee, sisal, sugar, hides and skins, tea, maize, wattle bark, tin ore, ivory and



George Philip & Son, Ltd.

FIG. 39. Section along the railway from Mombasa to Kisumu

wool, and were mostly to Great Britain and India. The chief imports were cotton, jute, silk, and woollen manufactures, machinery, mineral oil, motor cars and lorries, tyres and tubes, iron and steel manufactures, cigars and cigarettes, rice and liquors, derived mainly from Great Britain and India. The successful and increasing production of East African cotton has furthered the trade with India, which took over 4½ crores of rupees' worth of raw cotton from Kenya in 1937-8. Among the chief imports from India may be mentioned cotton and jute manufactures, and rice.

The main line of the state-owned railway runs from Mombasa to Kampalla, in Uganda, via Nairobi, a distance of 879 miles. A branch from Voi connects this railway with the Tanga line in Tanganyika at Kahe, and there are many other small branches in the region between Lake Victoria and Lake Kioga. The chief ports are Mombasa, Lamu, Malindi and Kilifi.

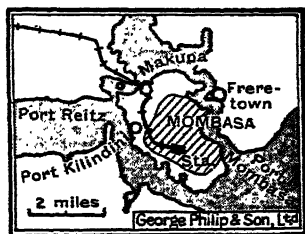


FIG. 40. Mombasa Harbour

Uganda. The Uganda Protectorate lies at the north-western corner of Victoria Nyanza, with an ill-defined boundary on the north on the side of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. Within these boundaries lie parts of the Victoria, Albert and Edward Nyanzas and several other smaller lakes. The area is less than 100,000 square miles and the population is estimated at 37 lakhs, which includes 16,000 Asiatics, mostly Indians, and 2,000 Europeans. The natives represent a mixture of many races, but the chief tribe is that of the Baganda, from whom the name of the country is derived, and who were the most

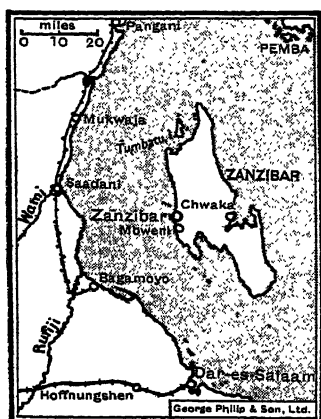


FIG. 41. Zanzibar

powerful, intelligent and civilized people in those parts when they were first explored by Europeans. The chief States in the Protectorate are those of Buganda, Bunyoro, Ankole and Toro; they are under their kings, controlled by a British Governor at Entebbe, which is the administrative centre of the Protectorate. Mengo is the largest native settlement. The Indians are the commercial people of this land and the chief commercial centre is Kampalla. Cotton is the most important product, the area under cotton being a little under 1,200,000

acres. The chief exports from Uganda besides cotton are coffee, sugar, hides and skins and ivory. The trade is chiefly with Great Britain and India. Besides the railways, there are steamer services on Lakes Victoria, Kioga and Albert.

Zanzibar and Pemba. The island of Zanzibar, the old slave and ivory market of Arab days, was once very prominent in the trade of East Africa, but the development of Mombasa and Dar-es-Salaam has much reduced its importance in recent years. The island lies about 30 miles off the coast of Tanganyika in latitude 6° S. Pemba lies to the north-east at a distance of about 25 miles and, with a few small adjacent islands, is included in the Zanzibar Protectorate. The population of the Protectorate is less than 2½ lakhs. The Arabs

are the principal landlords and employers of labour, which is furnished largely by the Swahilis, and trade is almost wholly in the hands of Indians who number 14,000. The clove industry is by far the most important, Zanzibar and Pemba supplying the bulk of the world's demand for cloves. The coconut industry comes next and copra is a leading export. The trade is chiefly with India, though Great Britain, Japan and the East Indies are important too. Zanzibar is regularly served by several steamship companies.

Recently there has been great agitation about the grievances of Indian merchants in Zanzibar with regard to the new organization of the clove industry and trade. The Government of India have been pressing the Indian point of view, but not much success has attended their efforts and a movement has been started in India for the boycott of Zanzibar cloves, in order to exercise pressure on the Zanzibar Government, which would be hard hit by the loss of the clove trade with India.

Indeed, there is a very tense situation in the East African countries on account of the conflicting claims of the white and brown peoples who seek to dominate these lands. The white and brown peoples have competed for centuries for political and religious control over the black peoples of Africa. The Arabs were much earlier in penetrating into these regions, and Islam has found more favour with the negroes than Christianity; and though the contest between the two peoples has been most acute in the north, it is none the less present in the east and the south. The trouble has been considerably augmented by the Indian settlers who resent the disabilities and restrictions that are being imposed on them in the interests of white colonization in the tropics. The interior highlands by reason of their temperate climate, their products and their nearness to the densely populated regions producing raw materials, offer a fair field for European settlement. Successful efforts are being made to clear these lands of tropical diseases like malaria and sleeping sickness, cholera and dysentery, by better drainage, jungle clearing and research. With healthy conditions of life thus secured, the cooler climate of the highland solves the problem of the white colonization of tropical Africa; this solution, however, unfortunately involves the

segregation of the native and Indian populations and consequent restrictions. The Indian population demands free immigration, right to buy and own land, and a franchise law which would place all voters on a common electoral roll. Indian opinion is inflamed and jealous and particularly resents discrimination against Indians in favour of Europeans, even though they be not British and the Indian legislature supported by the Government of India recently represented the strong feeling in India on the subject. European opinion is hardening and unyielding and, while welcoming all who choose to come and toil as submissive labourers, strongly objects to entertaining the claim of the natives and of other settlers to anything like equality. The whites in Kenya uphold the policy of a White Kenya in much the same way as South Africa and Australia, meaning not white colonization but white domination, though Kenya is not yet a self-governing dominion. In this land, European and Indian face one another more implacably than in any other country and the issue is whether race as distinguished from pigmentation is the true distinguishing mark of superiority and capacity. It would be a great mistake to let a community of some 8,000 people alienate completely the confidence of all the African and Asiatic peoples, and the sooner a rational solution is found, the better it will be for all concerned.

3. TANGANYIKA

Tanganyika was known as the German colony of German East Africa, but as a result of the Great War it has passed under the rule of Great Britain as the mandatory power. The total area is over 350,000 square miles and the coastline is about 500 miles. The population is over 50 lakhs. The territory extends from the Uмба river in the north to the Rovuma river in the south. The northern boundary runs in a north-west direction from the coast to Lake Victoria at 1° S. latitude, on the western side of which the frontier is marked out by the Kagera river. On the west there are Urundi, which is held by Belgium as the mandatory power, and Lake Tanganyika, the frontier passing through the middle of the lake. At the southern end of the lake, the boundary goes south-eastwards to Lake Nyasa, thence through the middle of the lake rather

less than half-way, where it turns east and meets the Rovuma.

The three lakes are important features of this territory. Lake Victoria, which is broad and shallow, is situated on the plateau, while Lakes Nyasa and Tanganyika, which are long, narrow and deep, lie in the Great Rift valley. The great volcanic movements which produced the gigantic cracks which gave rise to the valley seem to have radiated from the Unyamwezi plateau. The sides of the rift valley are steep and precipitous, so that the plateau appears like a high mountain range from the low coastlands. Near the easterly rift rises Mount Kilimanjaro, which attains a height of more than 19,000 feet. South-east of the great mountain, Pare and Usambara rise abruptly from the coastal plains, and are loosely connected through the Nguru mountains with the central plateau. In the Ukami district there is a similar isolated group of mountains. The whole of Tanganyika is thus a mountain-girt plateau with a very narrow coastal fringe on the east which widens out a little in the valleys of the Rufiji and the Kingani.

The rivers east of the eastern cleft drain to the Indian Ocean. The Pangani rising in Mount Kilimanjaro receives the drainage of the Pare and Usambara mountains also. The Wami rises farther south and the Kingani, rising in the Ukami highlands, is a coastal river. The most important river system is that of the Rufiji-Ruaha, whose tributaries the Ulanga and Luwega have their sources in the mountains east of Lake Nyasa. West of the fissure, the plateau is much drier, and the few rivers there drain to the great lakes, the Kagera to Lake Victoria and thence to the Mediterranean through the Nile, and the Malagarazi to Lake Tanganyika and thence through the Congo to the Atlantic Ocean. The small rivers that drain the eastern plateau, by their discharge of fresh water, break the growth of coral, and form a number of good harbours like Tanga, Kilwa Kisiwani, Lindi, Mikindani and the best and principal harbour Dar-es-Salaam.

The monsoons influence the climate of East Africa and mark out clearly the wet and dry seasons. The mountain regions have a temperate climate, while the plateau has a more continental climate with frequent hot winds. The coastal

strip, about 10 to 30 miles wide in the north and broader in the south, is uniformly hot and moist and is fever-infested.

The people belong mostly to the great Bantu race which includes a variety of types and is believed to have originated in the neighbourhood of the Great Lakes by the crossing of Negroes with Hamites, negrillos and other elements. Successive waves of Bantu peoples spread west and south over most of Africa approximately south of 4° N., but some tribes of Zulu origin have moved northward again, even reaching as far as Lake Victoria. The Bantu race is best represented by the tribes round Lake Nyasa and the Hamitic by the Masai west of the Pangani. The coastal tracts are dominated by the Swahilis, who have imbibed a great deal of Asiatic culture and whose language has spread all over the interior. Of the foreign elements in the population, the Europeans number about 9,000 and the Asiatics 33,000 of whom Indians number 23,000. European enterprise is mainly concerned with plantation, while Indians dominate the coastal trade.

The great contrasts in relief enable a great variety of cultivated products to be raised, the degree of moisture in the air, and the soil controlling the vegetation. The mountains on the windward slopes are covered with rich forests; on the coasts, the coconut and other palms are common enough, while many useful plants from India like the mango are also grown. The plateau has steppe vegetation; while grassy plains and deserts, too, are not unknown. The forests yield some valuable timbers like the pencil cedar and yellow wood; ebony is plentiful near the coast, while the mangrove trees fringing the river mouths are useful as a source of tanning bark and poles. The most important plantation crops are sisal hemp and ceara rubber, while the possibilities of cotton and coffee are great. There are numerous sheep and goats, and stock-raising in those districts that are free from the tsetse fly is an important occupation. Gold is the chief mineral, while diamonds, tin and mica are also mined in some quantities. Among the leading exports of the country may be mentioned sisal hemp, coffee, cotton, gold, hides and skins, grains, groundnuts, til, copra and ghee. The chief imports are cotton manufactures, machinery, iron and steel goods, mineral oil, sugar and cigarettes. The trade with India is

fairly considerable, the exports to India in 1935-6 being worth about 44 lakhs of rupees, of which cotton worth 40 lakhs was the outstanding item, and the imports from India were about 15 lakhs, the chief of which were cotton manufactures and rice.

There are two railways in the country. The Tanga railway along the Pangani valley connects the port Tanga with Arusha via Moshi, a distance of 273 miles. The central railway from Dar-es-Salaam, the capital and chief port, runs to Ujiji and Kigoma on Lake Tanganyika, a distance of 775 miles, with one branch from Tabora to Mwanza on Lake Victoria, and another from Manyoni to Kinyangiri, via Singida. Dar-es-Salaam has good telegraphic and cable communications with the adjoining territories and Mbeya, Dodoma and Moshi are ports of call for the Imperial Airways' planes from Croydon to the Cape via Cairo.

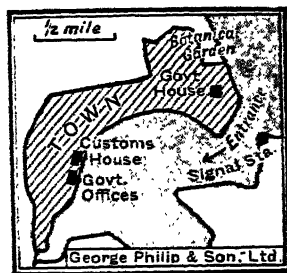


FIG. 42. Dar-es-Salaam

4. MOZAMBIQUE

Portuguese East Africa or Mozambique stretches from about 10° S. to 27° S. and has a coastline of about 1,400 miles; the northern part is much indented with many islands lying off it, and the southern is low with many sandbanks and lagoons. The boundaries were demarcated by Great Britain and Portugal in 1891, and the Rovuma river forms the greater part of the boundary with Tanganyika. The area is a little under 300,000 square miles and the population a little more than 40 lakhs.

The Zambezi divides the country into two almost equal parts, the province of Mozambique in the north and the province of Lourenço Marques in the south. The Nyasaland Protectorate drives in a wedge separating the eastern from the western parts of the country. The northern portion is mountainous country with the Namuli mountains rising up to about 6,000 feet and forming a hydrographic centre from which

rivers flow in different directions, the Lurio to the north-east, the Ligonja to the east and the Licungo to the south. Other important mountains are Mount Mlanje south of Lake Shirwa and the Serra Morumbala. The southern region has numerous rivers, the chief of which are the Limpopo, the Sabe and the Pungwe. The Lebombo range is on the Transvaal frontier and the Gorongosa mountains south of the Zambezi attain a height of about 6,500 feet. The Zambezi is, however, the most important waterway in East Africa, accessible from the sea either by the longer Quelimane or the shorter Chinde and entering the sea by a large delta; the Shiré, taking its rise in Lake Nyasa, is a navigable tributary. The low wide coastal plain in the south is malarious and unhealthy, but the interior has in many places a good healthy climate because of the altitude. Farther south in the regions beyond the tropic of Capricorn, at Inhambane and Lourenço Marques the climate is more temperate and better suited for European settlement.

The region was discovered by Vasco da Gama in 1498 and was first colonized by the Portuguese in 1505. The bulk of the population consists of natives of various races and tribes. In the north the tribes belong to the Eastern group of Bantus; south of the Pungwe peoples of the Southern group are found in Gazaland. For administrative purposes the country falls into two important divisions, one administered by the state and the second by the Mozambique Company. **Lourenço Marques** is the capital and chief commercial centre and is situated on the large and safe harbour afforded by Delagoa Bay. The Delagoa Bay railway connects it with Pretoria in the Transvaal and has a length of 57 miles in Portuguese territory; Lourenço Marques is thus important as the outlet of the Transvaal. **Beira** is another important town, situated at the south of the Pungwe and connected by the Beira railway, with 200 miles through Portuguese territory, with the Rhodesian railway system, so that it is the nearest outlet to the sea for Salisbury and Bulawayo. Beira is also connected with Nyasaland, the Shiré highland railway being linked at Port Herald with the Central African railway which is now linked by the Lower Zambezi Bridge, more than 12,000 feet long, with the Trans-Zambezia railway meeting the Beira junction railway at Dondo. Other ports are **Chinde**

on the delta and **Quelimane**, both of which owe their development to the traffic along the Zambezi, and also **Mozambique**, **Porto Amelia** and **Inhambane**.

The chief products are sugar, maize, copra and minerals. Some citrous fruits, too, are grown in the Sofala-Beira region and some cotton in the Limpopo basin. The trade is chiefly with Great Britain and India. In 1937-8, the imports from India amounted to 79 lakhs of rupees consisting chiefly of jute and cotton manufactures, rice and paraffin wax, while the exports to India amounted to 41 lakhs, consisting chiefly of fruits and sugar.

Mozambique is of interest to India, chiefly for trade in which further developments should be possible, and also as a possible outlet for the growing population of India.

5. THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

The Union of South Africa comprises the four colonies of the Cape of Good Hope, Orange Free State, Transvaal and Natal. These, with the area formerly known as German South West Africa, but now administered by the Union under a mandate from the League of Nations, and the Protectorates of Bechuanaland, Basutoland and Swaziland, at present directly under Great Britain, but which the Union has been insistently claiming to control, form South Africa. The Union of South Africa is a self-governing Dominion, and has an important voice in the counsels of the British Empire in the problems of Africa, south of the equator.

The original people of South Africa were probably the stunted **Bushmen**, whose chief occupation was hunting. They were succeeded by the **Hottentots**, a pastoral people. The peoples who now form the bulk of the population in the region are the **Bantus** generally known as the **Kaffirs**, whose subdivisions include the **Zulus**, **Basutos**, **Bechuanas** and **Damaras**. They are taller and stronger than the original races, and have evolved a system of government. Among the Europeans, the Portuguese were the earliest to arrive, when Bartholomew Diaz rounded the Cape of Good Hope in 1488, but they concentrated farther to the north on the east coast. The Dutch seized an opportunity and colonized the southern portion in

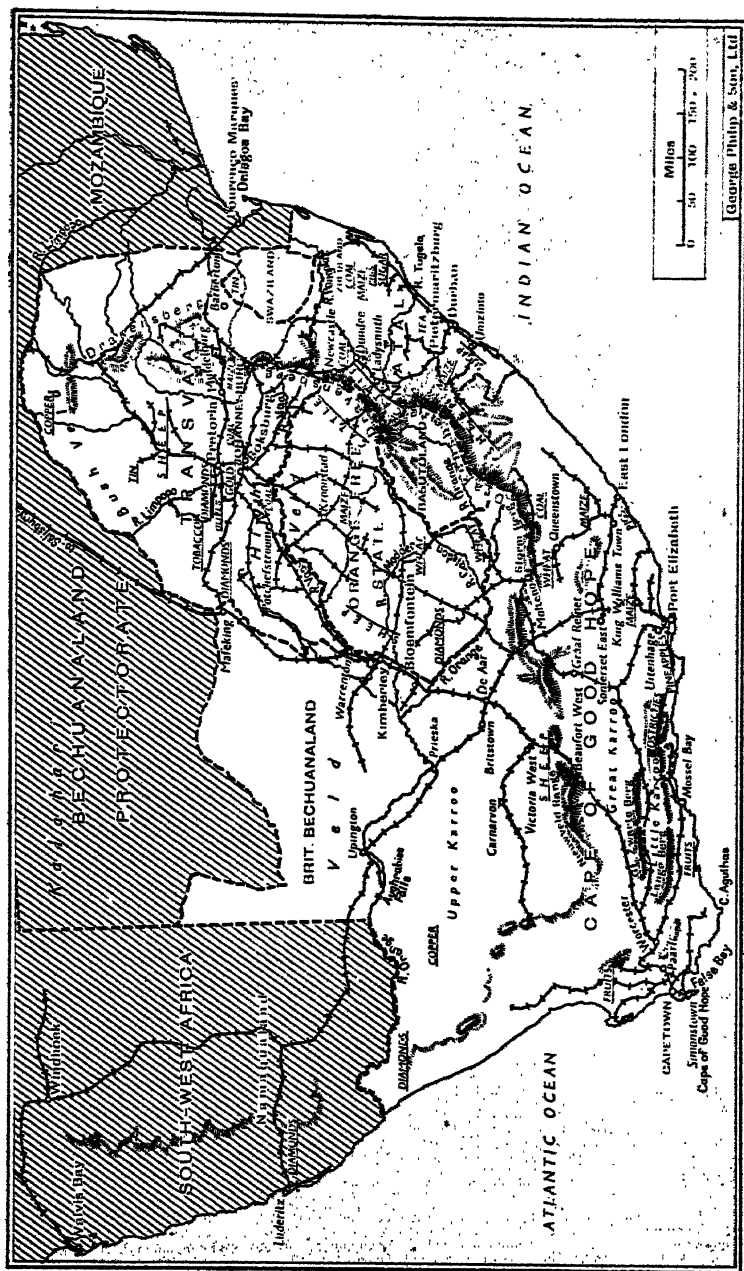


Fig. 44. Union of South Africa

1652. The French Huguenots came in about 1688 and mixed with the Dutch to form the **Afrikaners** or the **Boers**, who are proud, sturdy and independent. In 1806, during the Napoleonic wars, the colony passed into British hands. The British settlers, however, soon came into conflict with the Boers, who then migrated northwards. This **Great Trek** led to the establishment of the Orange River Colony and the Transvaal. Natal was taken by the Boers from the Zulus in 1838, but the British seized it in 1843, thus forcing the Boers to migrate farther. It was created a separate colony in 1856, and it absorbed Zululand in 1887, as the result of the Zulu Wars, and Tongoland a little later. Natal was an important military theatre during the Boer War, the chief incident being the defence and relief of Ladysmith. The Orange River Colony owes its development chiefly to the Great Trek in 1836 which brought a large number of European settlers. During the earlier years, the settlement had great trouble with the Basutos, and had a very chequered history. In 1854 British sovereignty was withdrawn, but as a result of the Boer War the country was ultimately absorbed in the Union of South Africa as the Orange Free State. The Great Trek was responsible for the colonization of the Transvaal by the Boers in 1836-7, the independence of which was recognized by Great Britain in 1852. Serious trouble with the natives led, however, to the annexation of the country in 1877. Dissatisfaction with British domination increased and the immigration of over a lakh of foreign miners by 1895 for the working of the gold mines in the country intensified the difficulties of the situation. The Boer War ultimately led to the Transvaal being incorporated in the Union of South Africa.

The outstanding physical feature of South Africa is a high interior plateau separated from the sea by narrow belts of lower lands, sloping down to the sea. From the sea, the land rises to the escarpment of the plateau in a series of three steps or terraces. The shore slope or the coastal plain is between the **Lange Berg** and **Outeniquas** and the coast; the next terrace is known as the **Little Karroo** and extends up to the **Great Zwarte Berg**; the third step is that of the **Great Karroo** which is bounded on the north by the escarpment or edge of the interior plateau, which is the **High Veld**. The

plateau is about 4,000 feet above sea level and the edges, higher in the south-east, lower in the west, appear as mountain ranges from the Karroos below. In the south, the escarpment is known in different places by different names, the better known being the **Nieuweveld mountains** in the south, and the **Drakensberg** or the **Quathlamba mountains** in the east. The plateau is gently undulating high ground with here and there flat-topped hills known as **Kopjes**, standing out in isolation.

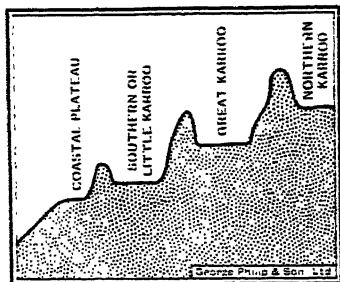


FIG. 45. Section across the Karroos
(Vertical scale greatly exaggerated)

The **Orange** river system is the most important in South Africa, draining the plateau which slopes generally from south-east to north-west. With its tributaries the **Vaal** and **Caledon**, it flows across the veld and falls into the Atlantic Ocean. Towards its lower course, it enters a very dry region and flows through a deep narrow channel with steep high sides, so that it does not serve any useful purpose either for irrigation or navigation. It descends from the plateau about 300 miles from the sea, in the Aughrabies Falls, which are a further handicap to navigation. The other important river of South Africa is the **Limpopo** which serves as the boundary between the Transvaal and southern Rhodesia, and flowing eastwards enters the Indian Ocean. Like the Orange river, the Limpopo is not useful as a highway for communication. Its lower course, after its descent from the veld, is through Mozambique. As in the case of the Deccan, the South African plateau is drained by rivers which do not play any very important part in the development of their basins, either for irrigation or for communication. The Natal rivers have a short course through deep valleys and are broken by waterfalls as they tumble down the escarpment to the sea, while the Cape rivers flow in longitudinal valleys and break through the ranges to meet the sea, so that they are, to some extent, valuable for irrigating the fertile mountain valleys.

South Africa has two chief regions, the plateau and the

coastal tract. The plateau can, however, be subdivided into three parts—the dry western, the warm northern and the rainier eastern areas, while the coastal tracts can be subdivided into four parts, the east coast, the west coast, the south-western coast and the Karroos.

The **dry western plateau** is the semi-desert region of the **Kalahari**. The rain-bearing winds in these latitudes are the south-east trade winds which deposit most of their moisture on the eastern coastlands, and which therefore reach the interior as dry winds. The **warm northern region** is a typical savanna or **bush veld** with a tropical climate; it extends to the Limpopo valley in northern Transvaal. The **rainier eastern region** comprises southern Transvaal and Orange Free State and is a typical steppe land. Of the coastal regions, the **east coast region** covers Natal and part of the Cape Province from Port Elizabeth northwards; here the climate and vegetation are sub-tropical, the palms and other trees giving place, as the higher slopes are reached, to grasses and mountain vegetation. The **west coast** is a desert land occupying the coastal tracts of South West Africa, while the **south-western coastal strip** has a Mediterranean climate with hot dry summers and mild wet winters. The valleys are fertile and cultivated, and patches of forests are even found. The **Karoo region** is cut off from the influence of the rain-bearing winds by the mountains, and the climate, though of the Mediterranean type, is very dry and the country is a semi-desert.

The total population of the Union as enumerated in 1936 was a little under 96 lakhs, of which the Europeans numbered about 20 lakhs, while people of mixed descent were about $7\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs. The native population was about 66 lakhs, and the Asiatic immigrants numbered over $2\frac{1}{4}$ lakhs. The Europeans are largely descendants of the Dutch, French and English settlers; the natives are mostly the Bantus, of whom the Zulus on the fertile eastern coast are the most important, and they are now almost entirely concentrated in the east and north. Inter-marriage has resulted in a mixed population, often referred to as coloured peoples, numerous in the south-western coastal regions. The Asiatics are largely Indians and Malays. The work on railway construction and plantations made it necessary to invite Indian labour immigration, and the trader

has followed the labourer. Natal, and to a smaller extent the Transvaal, have a large Indian population, consisting not only of skilled and unskilled labourers, but also of traders and professional peoples, so that Durban is to some extent an Indian town.

The contribution of the immigrant population to the economic development of South Africa has been great. The coast has been turned into one of the most prosperous parts of the Union. But the Indian settlers have been subjected to great hardships, restrictions and ill-treatment, which constitute a serious menace to the continuance of feelings of amity and harmony between members of the same Empire to which both South Africa and India belong. The heroic efforts of Mahatma Gandhi eased the situation for a time, but during the last few years it has become worse, because South Africa, strongly wedded to a policy of white domination, objects to the successful competition of the Indian in the commercial development of the country, and has been determined to impose harassing restrictions, to force repatriation as far as possible, and has placed a ban on further immigration. The Government of India is represented in the country by an Agent, and it has always taken a firm stand to maintain the honour and prestige of Indians abroad ; the Indian settlers have been putting up a strenuous fight, and have agitated against their disabilities ; and Indians in the homeland have been backing up their nationals in various ways. The British Government is also sympathetic and often assertive enough, but a Dominion is practically an independent country, which cannot be coerced, and South Africa is firm in its anti-Indian policy in the interests of the white settlers. Apart from the specific issues between the white and the Indian settlers, there is, in South Africa, the colour problem. The confused medley of prejudices, likes and dislikes, beliefs and disbeliefs, economic competition and political issues which make the problem are not founded, however, on any scientific basis ; for scientists are by no means agreed on the idea of the innate inferiority of the black races, a doctrine held and propagated by the white people in America and South Africa. The solution of the problem has been sought broadly in three ways. The French believe in the theory of assimilation, so far as the black population of their colonies

in Northern Africa is concerned. The South Africans accept the fundamental Boer Law that there shall be no equality between black and white. Between these two extremes, there is the British theory of 'trusteeship'. This difference in outlook has been leading to tension between Great Britain and South Africa in the matter of the three protectorates—Bechuanaland, Basutoland and Swaziland, which the Afrianders are determined to incorporate in the Union of South Africa, and which Great Britain is pledged not to transfer against the wishes of the inhabitants, who naturally prefer isolation and virtual self-government. In Kenya the same problem faces us, white reservation, black subordination and brown segregation and restriction. The clash of colour becomes the more clangorous because of economic competition between the whites and the blacks. The whole of white South and Central Africa really lives on the black men who are capable of doing the 'coolie' work, under climatic conditions which a white man would often find impossible, and yet the white men are anxious to prevent the black men from having access to the more responsible positions and an equal status. The spread of modern means of communication, the end of isolation, and the increase of intercourse have made the natives in all parts of Africa increasingly race-conscious, and if the clash of colour is not to lead to any serious armed clashes and upheavals, a sane sympathetic solution will have to be seriously sought for. After all, colour is a question of pigmentation which is qualitatively the same in all human beings, and not of culture, civilization or capacity.

South Africa is a miner's country and it is particularly important for the production of gold and diamonds. In 1936 the total value of gold produced in the four provinces amounted to £1,488,434,327 and that of diamonds to £320,830,968. Coal and copper are also fairly important, the total output of these being worth a little over £100,000,000 and £29,000,000 respectively. The principal agricultural products of the Union are wheat, and maize or mealies, the total production of which in 1935-6 was about 1,380 and 2,750 million lb. respectively. A large number of sheep and goats are reared in the country, so that the wool is also important. Among the products of the Union may be mentioned ostrich feathers, mohair,

sugar and tea. Irrigation is being encouraged by the state, particularly in the Karroos and the High Veld, where water supply is very deficient. Dry farming too is being introduced.

The gold-mining industry is the outstanding industry of the Union and has been more responsible than any other for its economic development. The Transvaal is the richest in minerals of all the provinces, and has the largest resources in gold and coal. About one-half of the world's supply of gold comes from it, and the Rand mines, near Johannesburg, the most important commercial centre of the Union, are famous. The mining is usually carried on by Kaffirs under European supervision, and the industry gives occupation to more than 200,000 people. Besides the Rand mines, there are other mining centres, though of much smaller importance, worked by Jewish and British financiers.

Diamonds are mainly found in the northern parts of the Cape Province between the Vaal and the Modder, the chief centre being Kimberley. Other areas where gems of quality have been found are the Barkly district north of the Vaal, Kuruman in Bechuanaland, and near Pretoria, where the Premier Diamond Mine is the best known. Diamonds are found embedded in a bluish clay, and are obtained by digging and sun-drying of the soil, the smaller stones being recovered by washing. The gems are sent to London and to Amsterdam, which is the great world centre for diamond cutting.

Coal is chiefly mined in Natal and the Transvaal, and the important centres of the industry are Middelburg, Boksburg and Springs, east of Johannesburg, in the Transvaal; and Dundee and Newcastle in the Drakensberg in Natal. There are a few mines in Cape Province and the Orange Free State also. The coal is not the best quality steam coal, but it serves the purposes of the Union. It is of interest, however, to note that about half of the coal produced is exported to India, particularly to Bombay, and in any bilateral pact that may be arrived at between India and the Union, the coal trade will be a factor of some importance. The chief copper mines are found in Namaqualand, in the Cape Province and in northern Transvaal.

Commerce. The principal exports of the Union are the various raw materials produced in its mines, farms and pastures, and gold and diamonds are outstanding items. Besides these,

however, the exports of **wool** and **hides and skins** are considerable. There are about 40 million sheep; the merino gives the best wool, the average yield per fleece being 11 lb., contrasting strongly with the low yield of 2 lb. per sheep in India. The Angora goat yields long silky hair known as **mohair**, which is an important export. **Maize** is the chief cereal, and a valuable cattle food of South Africa, and is grown largely

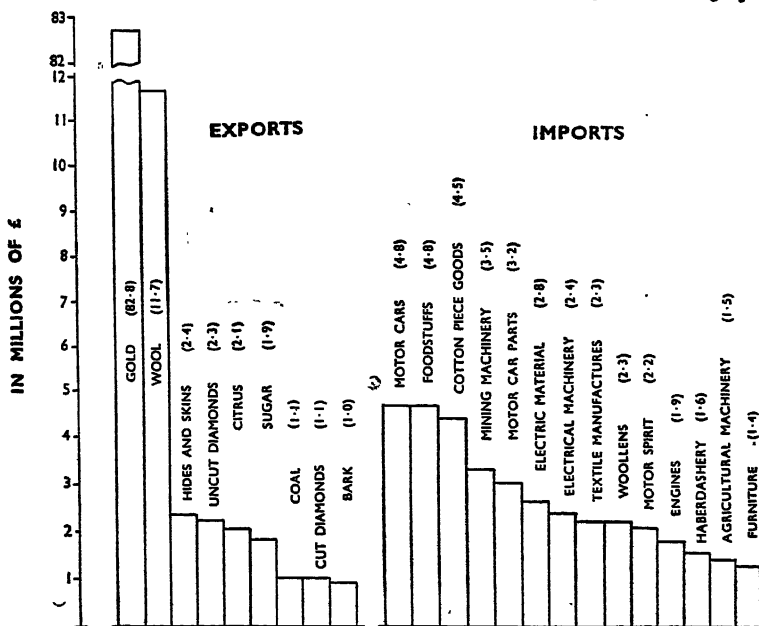


FIG. 46. Union of South Africa
Leading Exports and Imports, 1937

in the High Veld in southern Transvaal and the northern parts of Orange Free State, and on the east coast. Among other exports of note may be mentioned wattle bark, coal and ostrich feathers. The export trade in 1937 amounted to 102 million pounds sterling. The imports amounted to over 75 million, and consisted largely of manufactured articles, the textiles and iron and steel goods being the outstanding items. Great Britain takes the largest share in both the import and export trade, supplying about half the imports and taking more than two-thirds of the exports.

The trade with India is not so considerable, the imports from India in 1937-8 being a little over $1\frac{1}{2}$ crores of rupees, consisting chiefly of jute manufactures, rice, ghee and vegetable oils and paraffin wax ; the exports to India amounted in that year to a little over 48 lakhs and consisted chiefly of tanning bark and coal.

Communications are well developed in South Africa and the railway system is fairly extensive, the open mileage in 1935 being more than 13,000 miles. The separate state railways were merged into one system in 1910. The gauge adopted is the narrow one of 3 feet 6 inches. The four important ports from which the railways radiate are Capetown, Port Elizabeth, Durban and Lourenço Marques, which is an outlet for the Transvaal. The main line starts from Capetown, and passes through the fertile fruit-growing valleys and vineyards of Paarl and Worcester, the ostrich and sheep farms of Beaufort West on the Great Karroo, and the pastoral region round De Aar to the great diamond centre, Kimberley. This town near the Orange Free State frontier, founded as a mining camp in 1870, is now a populous town, well built and efficiently drained so that the climate is no longer unhealthy. Kimberley and Mafeking, 200 miles farther to the north, are well known for protracted sieges in the Boer War. After leaving Mafeking, the railway enters Bechuanaland and proceeds to Bulawayo in southern Rhodesia. From Kimberley the main line goes on through the well-irrigated agricultural area of Potchefstroom in the Transvaal to Johannesburg, which, being the centre of the Rand goldfield, is the largest and wealthiest city and the principal focus of the railway system of the Union.

From Port Elizabeth, another railway route serves Uitenhage, a great market garden and wool washing centre, and Graaff Reinet the most important agricultural centre of the Great Karroo. This route proceeds to Bloemfontein in a good dairying region, and thence through the pastoral and mining areas of Kroonstad to Johannesburg. A branch from Bloemfontein to Kimberley connects these two routes. The port of East London also is connected with Bloemfontein by a line that passes through a rich pastoral region near Queenstown and the coal-mining region of Molteno.

From Durban, the railway passes through the hot coastal plain, with its tea and sugar plantations and fruit orchards, to Pietermaritzburg, whence it goes on to Ladysmith, famous for its siege in the Boer War. From Ladysmith, the line passes through the coal-mining districts round Dundee and Newcastle and the mountainous areas of Majuba Hill, to Johannesburg.

From Lourenço Marques on Delagoa Bay another route goes through the rich gold-mining region of Barberton and the coalfields of Middelburg to Pretoria, the capital of the Transvaal and of the Union, and connects with the other routes at Johannesburg.

The Union railways are linked at Bulawayo to the Rhodesian system, which proceeds to Beira via Salisbury and Umtali, and connects Bulawayo with Broken Hill in northern Rhodesia via Livingstone. The Cape-to-Cairo railway, to connect Northern Africa with Southern, has been a project of great importance since the Boer War. The northern section from Alexandria and Cairo has reached Khartoum more or less along the valley of the Nile ; while the southern section from Capetown has reached Broken Hill in northern Rhodesia ; from there it penetrates the Belgian Congo beyond the boundaries of northern Rhodesia ; the gap between the two sections can be covered by railway developments in Tanganyika, Kenya and Uganda. But before this trans-continental railway has become a reality, aerial transport has assumed importance for long distance imperial communications, and the Cape-to-Cairo Airway has already been developed. From Croydon (London), the air route goes to Cairo via Paris, Brindisi and Athens, and from Cairo to Capetown, in the Cape of Good Hope, via Khartoum, Kampalla, Nairobi, Moshi, Broken Hill, Salisbury, Bulawayo, Pretoria and Bloemfontein.

Capetown is the capital of the Cape Province and of the Union. Its situation on Table Bay, at the foot of Table Mountain, shelters it from the south-easterly winds and gives it a most beautiful site. Its harbour has been improved by an artificial breakwater and it is the chief port of the Union serving all four provinces, the Protectorates and Rhodesia as an outlet. Its immediate hinterland is a rich fruit-growing

district with an important wine industry. Capetown is an important port of call for steamers bound for Australia and India by the Cape route, and the changing situation in the Mediterranean gives to **Simonstown** the naval dockyard and coaling station on False Bay, much greater significance than before as a strategic base on this route.

Port Elizabeth, situated on Algoa Bay, has not a good harbour, being exposed to the south-easterly winds, but harbour works, now nearing completion, afford safe anchorage

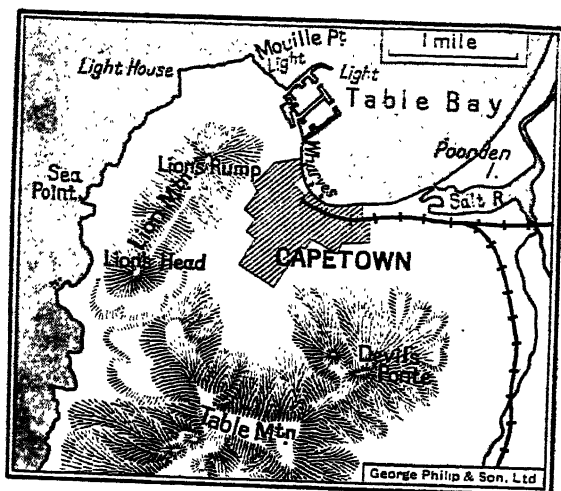


FIG. 47. Capetown

for ships. Being connected by railways to the Karroos and the veld, it has, however, an important trade in wool, mohair, hides and skins, and ostrich feathers.

Durban, sometimes known also as Port Natal, has a fine natural harbour, protected by a sandspit at the entrance to the sheltered bay on which it stands, though constant dredging is required to keep the passage open. It is an important coal and wool port of the Union, and trades with India, Singapore and other African ports.

East London is a minor port, at the mouth of the Buffalo river and serves the fertile agricultural hinterland behind it.

6. THE ISLANDS OF THE INDIAN OCEAN

(i) Madagascar

Madagascar is an island, almost twice as large as the British Isles, about 250 miles from Mozambique, and separated from the mainland by the Mozambique Channel. It is about 1,000 miles long and about 350 miles broad in the centre and has a coastline of over 3,000 miles. It has an area of about 250,000 square miles and a population of about 38 lakhs. The island has long been known to Arab navigators and merchants, and Europeans, too, have been visiting it since the sixteenth century; yet the interior has not been sufficiently explored. Early colonies of Portuguese, Dutch, English and French were formed in the sixteenth century. Madagascar was ruled by a number of independent chieftains, till the middle of the seventeenth century, when it was divided into two kingdoms, those of the Sakalava on the south-west and of the Hova in the north and east. The influence of the Europeans was, however, gradually increasing and only received a setback from 1828. But in 1861 Madagascar was reopened to Europeans, and the war of 1882-4 between the French and the Hovas terminated with the recognition of France as the Power to regulate the foreign relations of the country. The treaty of 1890 between England and France recognized the French Protectorate over Madagascar. The war of 1895 finally put an end to the independence of the country, which thenceforward became a French colony.

Madagascar has a very regular coastline, with but few articulations and inlets except in the north-west. The interior is an elevated region about 4,000 feet high, and this central core is surrounded by low level country, a plain wide on the west and south, but narrow on the east. The elevated region is mountainous and is composed chiefly of crystalline rocks, the hills having generally a rounded dome-like appearance, and it occupies about half the total area. The highest mountain is Ankaratra, about 9,000 feet high. The lower regions are fertile, and south-east trades bring rains throughout the year. The island shows signs of intense volcanic action at some time, there being numerous extinct volcanic craters

and sheets of lava, and many hot springs. The chief rivers flow westwards and are navigable for about 100 miles; the eastern rivers descend from the highland in a succession of waterfalls and rapids. A series of lagoons south of Tamatave forms a natural waterway which has been improved by canalization. The island is largely in the tropical zone and the coasts are hot and malarial. The mountain regions, however, are temperate and healthy.

The people of the island are Malagasy; the French number less than 25,000 and other foreigners under 15,000. The Malagasy people belong to the Malay-Polynesian stock, but there are intrusions of the African element in the western parts, and of Arab blood on the north-west and south-east coasts. The Hova is the most advanced, intelligent and enterprising tribe and was the dominant race during the nineteenth century; these people probably represent

the latest immigrants of the purely Malayan type. They are courageous, polite and hospitable; they have no ancient literature, their language having been reduced to writing only a century ago. A large number of the Hova and other tribes has been converted to Christianity by the missionaries who have played an important part in opening up the island to Europeans.

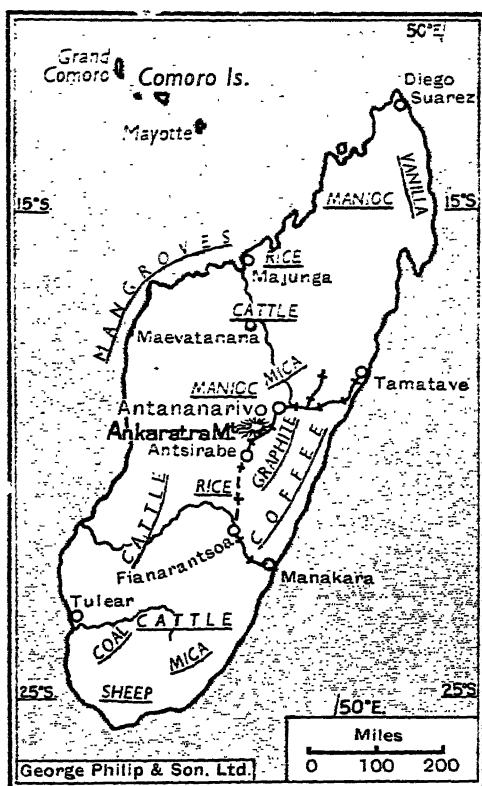


FIG. 48. Madagascar

The people of outlying tracts still practise a kind of fetishism and ancestor-worship.

The principal crops are rice, manioc, sugar and coffee, and the forests yield many valuable woods like ebony. The chief occupations of the people are agriculture and cattle-breeding. Large meat-preserving factories have been established in many towns, while silk and cotton-weaving are carried on. Among the minerals, the most important are graphite and mica. In 1934 the exports amounted to 345 million francs and the imports to 312 million francs. Coffee and canned meats are the outstanding exports, though vanilla, hides and raffia fibre are also important. France receives the bulk of the exports and also supplies the bulk of the imports, which largely consist of cotton manufactures, machinery, iron and steel goods, fuel oil and motor cars.

Communications are still undeveloped. There are about 16,000 miles of roads and only four railways. The first connects Tamatave the principal seaport with Antananarivo the capital (229 miles); the second connects the capital with Antsirabe (99 miles) where there are the well-known thermal springs; the third (105 miles) takes off from the main line and serves the northern districts; and the fourth line leads from Fianarantsoa the only other important inland town to the east coast (101 miles). Madagascar is connected by cable with Aden, Mozambique, Mauritius and Réunion, and at Antananarivo there is an important wireless station, an integral part of the French inter-colonial network. Besides Tamatave, there are a few ports of some importance, such as Diego Suarez, serving the extreme north, and Majunga the north-west.

At one time, in past geological ages, the huge continent of Gondwanaland connected peninsular India with south-eastern Africa, and the long chain of island groups from Madagascar across the Indian Ocean, are the relics of that old Indo-African continent. But today Madagascar is not of any great importance to India, for neither from the point of view of trade or of population, are there any great interests involved.

The Comoro Islands are attached to Madagascar and include the islands of Mayotte, Anjouan, Grand Comore and Mohulla lying between the north-eastern coasts of Madagascar

and the mainland of Mozambique. The total population is over 1½ lakhs and an interesting feature is the increasing emigration to Madagascar and Zanzibar. Vanilla is superseding sugar as the chief product of these islands. Besides these two, cacao, aloes and perfume plants are also cultivated.

(ii) Mauritius and its Dependencies

Mauritius is an island in about 20° S. latitude and about 500 miles east of Madagascar. Known to the Arabs from early times, it was discovered by the Portuguese about 1510 and occupied by the Dutch in the sixteenth century. The island was later abandoned by the Dutch, and soon afterwards occupied by the French in 1715. As a French Colony, it flourished throughout the eighteenth century as a sugar-producing land, but it was ceded to the British at the close of the Napoleonic Wars.

Mauritius has an area of about 700 square miles and a population of about 4 lakhs, of which about 2½ lakhs or nearly 70 per cent are Indian. The sugar industry dominates the life and prosperity of the island and has attracted, like the neighbouring island of Réunion, a large number of Indian emigrants. The indenture system for emigration has been abandoned recently by the Government of India; but Mauritius continues to be of great interest to India, for it offers many facilities for colonization. Indians control about 45 per cent of the sugar plantations and their progress is a clear testimony to the fair policy of the administration, which gives an equality of opportunity and treatment, under which Mauritius has been hailed as a heaven for the thrifty and industrious worker. There is complete parity in the island; the pure whites are very few, the Europeans are mostly half-castes with a strain of French blood, and it has been admitted that in no part of the world do Indians enjoy the same rights and privileges as they do here in all spheres of life. Mauritius is thus almost an Indian colony under the British Empire.

The principal product of the island is sugar which is also the staple export. Copra, however, is also important as in all other tropical islands. The chief necessities of life have to be imported, chiefly from India, South Africa and Great Britain. The exports in 1936 amounted to 2·4 million

pounds sterling and the imports to 2·2 millions. At one time the trade with India was very important, but the rise of Java as a sugar exporting country and the development of sugar manufacture in India itself, has led to a great shrinkage in the exports to India, and Great Britain now takes the bulk

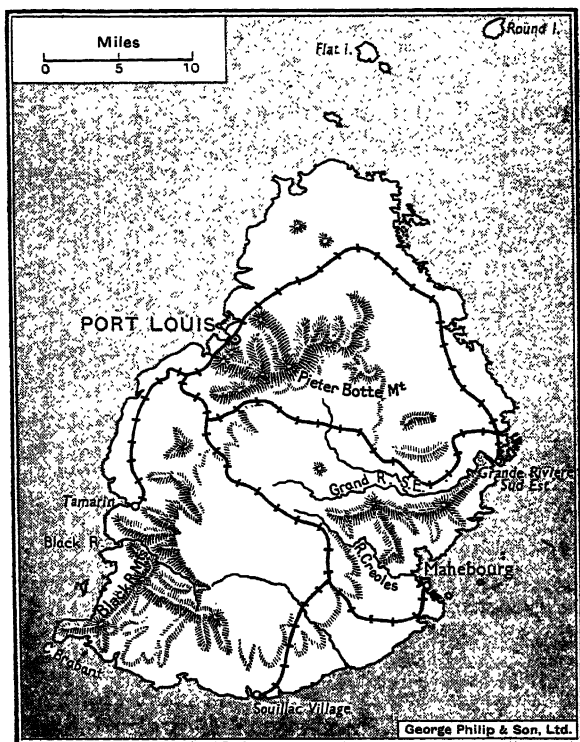


FIG. 49. Mauritius

of the exports and has a considerable share in the import trade. Indian exports to Mauritius amounted in 1937-8 to about 62 lakhs of rupees and were chiefly rice, wheat flour, jute and cotton manufactures, ghee and other articles chiefly required by the Indian settlers.

The coasts of Mauritius are low, but the centre is mountainous. Being in the track of the south-east trade winds, the rainfall is heavy, being over 130 inches on the high central

plateau. The high temperatures and heavy rainfall caused a great part of the island to be covered with forests, which have, however, been destroyed. The climate is not particularly healthy, the island being ravaged by the scourge of malaria.

Port Louis is the capital and chief port and is situated on the north-west coast. It has a fine sheltered harbour, and is a fortified coaling station. It is connected by cable with Australia, Zanzibar, Madagascar, and Durban. A small railway about 140 miles in length almost encircles the island.

Several distant groups and scattered islands are attached to the British colony of Mauritius, the chief of which are the Seychelles, Rodriguez, and the Oil Islands, including Diego Garcia and other islands of the Chagos group. Among the smaller dependencies of Mauritius may be mentioned the St Brandon Isles, Aldabra and the Amirantes which yield coconut oil.

The Seychelles. These are a group of about one hundred islands and islets in about 4° S. latitude. The islands are of volcanic origin and are surrounded by coral reefs. They are mountainous, well watered and fertile and capable of raising coconuts, timber and other tropical produce. The area is about 150 square miles with a population of a little more than 30,000. The chief island is Mahé. The Amirantes, and several others are dependent islands. The climate is excellent.

The chief product is coconuts, but the essential oil industry is being developed and cinnamon, patchouli and other essential oils are being produced. The exports in 1933 were valued at 9 lakhs of rupees and the imports at 8.3 lakhs. The chief exports are copra, guano and essential oils. With India the trade is fairly large, imports from it, in 1933, being $2\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs of rupees, the exports to it being $1\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs. Great Britain and India are the leading countries for both the export and import trade. Japan has obtained a footing in the import trade, while the United States ranks next to Great Britain in the export trade.

Communication between the islands is fairly regular. Though not on the main route, the islands are served by a monthly call from the British Indian steamers from Bombay to Mombasa.

The Chagos. This archipelago forms part of various

scattered groups of islands, known as the Oil Islands, which include Eagle or Trois Frères and Cosmoledo Island, and lie between 6° and 10° S. latitude. They are dependencies of Mauritius, being placed under a Magistrate. Diego Garcia is the most important of the Oil Islands with a population of about 500. It has a fine harbour enclosed in a coral atoll on the direct route from Aden to Freemantle, and Colombo to Mauritius. The chief industry is the extraction of coconut oil.

Rodriguez. This is another dependency of Mauritius, placed under a Magistrate, about 350 miles to the north-east. It has a volcanic origin and is known for its beautiful Karst type of scenery with remarkable limestone caverns with stalactite pendants. It is 18 miles long and 7 miles broad and has a population of about 10,000. The climate is good, and the soil is fertile. Discovered by the Portuguese, it passed into the hands of the French who were ousted by the British in 1809. Maize is the chief cereal grown and fishing is an important industry. It also lies on the direct route from Colombo to Mauritius.

(iii) Réunion

Réunion or, as it was formerly called, Bourbon is a small island belonging to the French since 1649. It is about 400 miles to the east of Madagascar and a little to the south-west of the British island of Mauritius. The island is of volcanic origin and the Piton des Neiges in the north-west attains a height of more than 10,000 feet; volcanic activity is still in evidence in the south-east. The area is about 1,000 square miles and the population is about 2 lakhs, of whom the great majority are French. A few Indians have also settled in the island. The people mostly live in the small towns on the coast, of which St Denis is the most important. The chief port is Pointe des Galets and it is served by a railway about 80 miles long, remarkable for many long tunnels through which it wends its way to the other coastal towns.

The island was once a producer of coffee; but now sugar is the staple product though the competition of beet sugar has led to a decline. The sugar industry leads to another important industry, rum making, so that sugar and rum are

the leading exports. Among minor products, mention may be made of tapioca, vanilla and essences.

The small islands of St Paul and Amsterdam in the Indian Ocean between Africa and Australia in about 37° S. latitude, and the isolated island of Kerguelen farther southwards in 50° S. latitude are also French possessions, administratively treated as dependencies of Réunion. Their isolation is almost complete; they are visited only occasionally by whalers.

CHAPTER VI

OUR GREAT EASTERN NEIGHBOURS

1. CHINA

CHINA is a wonderful land fallen upon evil times. One of the oldest countries in the world, it built up one of the most ancient and extensive of empires and evolved a very high order of culture and civilization. It is the most self-sufficient of countries, having retained its homogeneity and individuality through the ages. It has also been very much isolated, the Pacific on the east, the great mountain girdle on the north, west and south and the great deserts of Gobi, and other intramontane arid regions shutting it out from the rest of the world. With the most fertile soils, notably the yellow loess of the Hwang Ho basin, with enormous mineral resources, and with magnificent river systems like that of the Yangtze Kiang, the longest river of the eastern hemisphere, China is the land of culture and courtesy, the 'Celestial' empire, the empire of 'the Pure', and the most densely peopled region of the world, housing a little under one-fourth of the entire human race, with a density of over 400 persons to the square mile.

Today, torn by internal conflicts and harassed by external pressure, this great country has become the happy hunting ground for bandits and adventurers and a fair field for exploitation by the great powers of the world, who in their unquenchable thirst for materials and markets, plan cultural infiltration and commercial penetration. China's weakness lies in its lack of modern armaments, its lack of finance and its lack of cohesion, though the birth of a national consciousness in recent times has been in evidence; its strength lies in international jealousies which make for safety at least for the time being. From the whirlpool of international rivalries, jealousies and policies, China may emerge resurrected and revitalized. The problem of China is more than a problem of the Far East. It is a world problem in which the clash of

interests may create a major crash and unleash the horrors of the holocaust of Armageddon. With the Russian octopus throwing its tentacles to Sinkiang, Mongolia and Manchuria, with the Japanese surgical knife lepping off Manchukuo and making deep incisions in Inner Mongolia and northern China, with the United States of America nursing China with funds and watching the course of events from its advanced base, the Philippines, with Great Britain looking on from Hong Kong and also from Burma, with France established in Indo-China, and with Greater Germany and Imperial Italy ever on the alert, the position is fraught with grave peril and is one of great uncertainty.

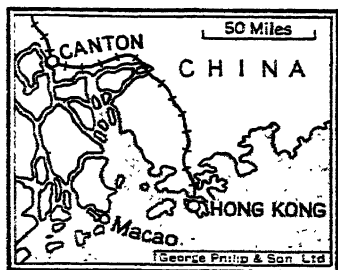


FIG. 50. Hong Kong

Isolated by high mountains and great deserts, with a civilization based on self-sufficiency and a distrust of foreigners, China was caught unprepared to cope with the situation created by the eastward march of western civilization based on commerce and industry. The Opium War of the early forties of the last century revealed to China her weaknesses and roused her from the state of self-complacency and superiority in which she had indulged for centuries. The war with Japan and the Boxer rebellion in the closing years of the last century revealed once more her deterioration, and a worsening situation culminated in the Revolution of 1911. The Emperor abdicated and China became a Republic under the presidency of Yuan Shi Kai. Japan had emerged from the Russo-Japanese War with enhanced prestige and greater strength and began to take advantage of the chaotic situation in China, in order to secure concessions and privileges. The Great War added considerably to Japan's strength and increased her opportunities, so that from the close of that war till now, Japan has gone on from one step to another, utilizing opportunities and fomenting the increasing confusion, so that it has succeeded in separating Manchuria from China and organizing it into the autonomous state of Manchukuo under Japanese protection. The awakening of China, largely due to the influence of

Dr Sun Yat Sen, has also been proceeding apace and a national spirit has been replacing local patriotism. The Civil War brought unification under Marshal Chiang Kai Shek, who established the Central Government at Nanking. The Sino-Japanese War in progress at present, has seen Japan triumphant in northern and eastern China, but it is too early to be able to foresee the results of this war.

It is of some interest to note that China and the eastern part of the United States of America have some striking resemblances and contrasts. Both the countries are very large areas mainly in the warm temperate zone lying on the eastern coasts of their respective continents, and both experience rather extreme climates. The warm Kuro Siwo, flowing along the Chinese coast, and mingling its waters with the cold Kurile current to the north-east, has its counterpart in the Gulf Stream. Both have a magnificent system of waterways, and the longest river in their respective hemispheres, the Yangtze Kiang and the Mississippi. The best part of both these lands is towards the eastern coast ; both have very valuable mineral resources and varied agricultural products. The countries to the north, Siberia and Canada, are themselves very similar in climate and vegetation. And yet, how dissimilar are these lands ! The Mongolians dominate the one and the Caucasians, having displaced the Red Indians, who claim kinship with the Mongolians, dominate the other. Japan to the north-east has progressed with very rapid strides while the corresponding island, Newfoundland, still remains but a fisherman's land. Though both are now republics, China represents the oldest type of civilization, the United States the most modern ; the one remains one of the most backward countries of today, the other is one of the most advanced. China is overpopulated and sends out a stream of emigrants, the United States is underpopulated and receives a stream of immigrants. China is the prey of foreign imperialism and economic exploitation, in which the United States is a principal participator.

China is a large country with an area of over 2,200,000 square miles and a population of about 46 crores. Its outlying territories comprise Manchuria, Mongolia, Sinkiang and Tibet ; they have an area of about 2,300,000 square miles and a

population of a little over $3\frac{1}{2}$ crores. On the north, mountains and arid steppelands separate it from Mongolia and Manchukuo. More than two centuries before the Christian era, a Great Wall was built on the north as a measure of protection against the predatory incursions of the peoples beyond, and this Wall still more or less marks the frontier on the west. The vast, high Tibetan plateau is to the west, while high mountain ranges and deep valleys separate China from India and Burma, as also from Indo-China in the south, where the frontier runs along the water-divide between the valleys of the Si-kiang and the Red river.

China can broadly be divided into :

- (i) The Northern Uplands ;
- (ii) The Central Plain ; and
- (iii) The Southern Uplands.

The Northern Uplands are a lofty tableland descending to the plains rather precipitously by a series of escarpments or edges. The western part of these uplands is a plateau covered with loess and showing striking diversity of features. The high ranges of the Nan-Shan mark the boundary between China and Tibet. This western highland region is separated from the middle one by the Hwang Ho, where it flows southwards to meet the Wei-ho. This middle region is further subdivided by the valley of the Fen-ho, where the ranges run more or less in a north-south direction ; the northern part of the escarpment, along which runs the Great Wall, forms the boundary between China and Mongolia. The easterly part of the northern uplands constitutes Manchuria, which does not form part of China today, and is separated from Mongolia by the Khingan mountains. Farther eastwards the Chang-pai-shan and the Manchurian highlands form the eastern part of Manchuria. They are continued in the Liaotung peninsula and farther south across the Gulf of Chih-li in the Shantung peninsula.

These two mountain systems of the Northern Uplands and the Manchurian highlands enclose between them in the north, the Manchurian lowlands forming an extensive plain, a rich agricultural land watered by the Liao-ho and the Sungari. In China proper, this plain is continued, though separated from Manchuria by the Gulf of Chih-li, as a great triangular

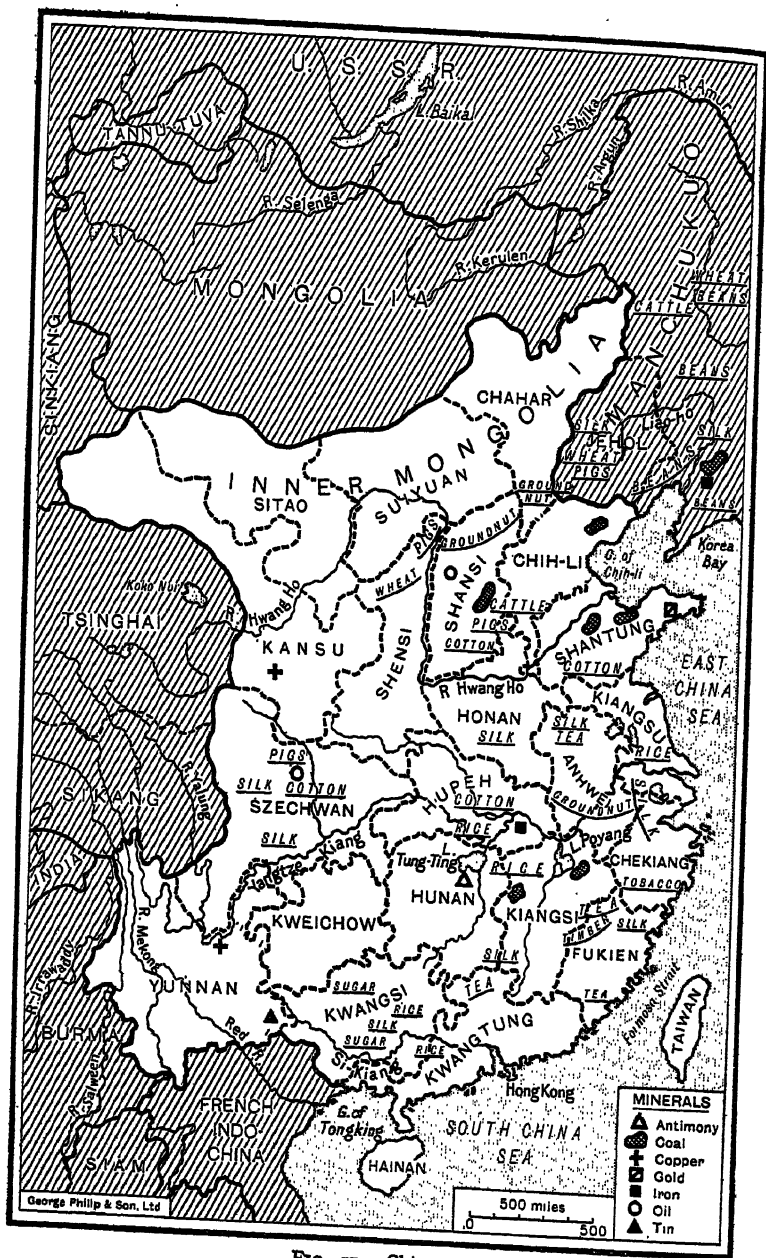


FIG. 51. China

plain, forming the most important feature of northern China. From Peiping (Peking) at the vertex, the triangle widens out to the broad base of the Yangtze Kiang from Shanghai to Ichang. This great plain, the real home of the Chinese people, is formed by the basins of the great rivers, the Hwang Ho with the Wei-ho in the north; and the Yangtze Kiang with its tributary the Han-kiang, and the Hwai-ho with its tributary the Sha-ho, in the south. Two highland systems rise out of this plain, the Shantung in the north and the Hwai in the south. The Shantung mountains are divided into two groups: the eastern, a continuation of the Manchurian highlands, forms the Shantung peninsula and is separated from the western by a gap which has been utilized by the railway from Tsi-nan to Kiaochow and Tsingtao; the western group, of ancient rocks, rises abruptly from the plain and was the chief obstacle that led to the deflection of the Hwang Ho from a southerly to a northerly course, entering the Gulf of Chih-li instead of the Yellow Sea, as formerly. The Hwai mountains cross the provinces of Hupeh and Honan and form the water-divide between the Hwang Ho and the Yangtze Kiang, and have played an important part in the strategy of the recent war operations in China. The central plain can therefore be divided into the Great Plain, the Yangtze delta region and the Hupeh basin.

The Southern Uplands have a more complicated structure. There are three chief folds giving three main divisions, the northern, western and eastern. The northern area consists of lofty mountain ranges which are the continuation of the great Kunlun system, and are known by different names in different parts, the Nan-Shan on the west, the Tsinling-Shan, south of the Wei-ho, and the Funiu-Shan, separated, by a depression, from the Hwai mountains. In the western area, comprising Western Szechwan and Yunnan, the folds run north to south with deep and narrow river valleys between. The Salween, the Mekong and the Yangtze Kiang have their sources close to one another and flow in more or less parallel gorges for a considerable distance, till the Yangtze, capturing various head streams and eroding the hills, turns eastwards. The eastern area can be subdivided into three regions, the Yangtze region which includes Szechwan, Kweichow, Hunan

and Kiangsi ; the coastal region of south Chekiang, Fukien and the coastal strip of Kwangtung ; and the Si-kiang region, made up of Kwangsi and Kwangtung, and southern Kweichow. It may be noted that eastern Szechwan and Yunnan, often known as the Red basin, have a reddish deposit covering the soil which is one of exceeding fertility, and which is able to support a very dense population.

The chief natural regions of China are therefore twelve, as under :

A. The Northern Uplands :

(1) Western : Loess plateau ; (2) Middle : the Wei-ho valley ; (3) Northern escarpment ; (4) Eastern : the Shantung mountains.

B. The Central Plain :

(5) the Great Plain ; (6) the Yangtze delta ; (7) the Hupeh basin.

C. The Southern Uplands :

(8) Northern ; (9) Western ; (10) the Red basin and middle Yangtze ; (11) Coastal, and (12) the Si-kiang basin.

The three great rivers of China are the Hwang Ho, the Yangtze Kiang and the Si-kiang. The Hwang Ho rises from Lake Oring on the Odontala plain. In its upper course, it forms an S-shaped curve and enters Kansu, where it falls from about 8,000 feet to 5,000 feet, at Lanchow, the head of navigation of this great river. Turned by a spur of the Kunlun, the river flows northwards through the yellow loess plateau into Inner Mongolia for a considerable distance, when it suddenly flows eastwards, passes Paoton and Hokow, and flows southwards, to Tungkwan, forming the boundary between the provinces of Shensi and Shansi. In this great loop of about 1,200 miles from Lanchow to Tungkwan, the Hwang Ho encircles the plateau of Ordos and emerges from the Eastern Gate. Navigation in the great Ordos bend is possible, though rapids and narrow gorges are great impediments, and the river is used as the waterway for the transport of coal, the deposits of which in this region are famous. During this upper course, the Hwang Ho receives tributaries, which are rather tempestuous mountain torrents, and not particularly useful ; the chief of them is the Tao-ho which meanders through the

valley north of the Min-Shan, and empties itself in the main river above Lanchow. The basin of the Wei-ho, the chief tributary of the Hwang Ho, is the home of the Chinese, whence they are supposed to have spread to the rest of China. The river has cut for itself great gorges and deep canyons and becomes navigable from Tsinping whence it passes through a fertile loess-covered plain to its confluence with the Hwang Ho at Tungkwan.

In this region two cities claim notice. Si-an, lying a little to the south of the Wei-ho, is one of the most ancient capitals of China, like Peking in the north and Nanking in the south. It is at the gateway to the west and the focus of the historic trade-routes by the Wei-ho valley, and is situated in the midst of a fertile loess-covered area. Si-an is no longer as important as it was, but being the commercial centre of Shensi, it still remains one of the busy centres of population. Lanchow is the capital of Kansu, and lies farther west on the great western trade routes through the Wei-ho corridor.

From Tungkwan, the Hwang Ho flows eastwards through the widening gap between the Funiu-Shan, a continuation of the Tsinling-Shan, and the northern escarpment of the great plateau to Kaifeng, which lies in the centre of the Great plain. Kaifeng was once the capital of China, is a nodal town of some importance on the main trade routes with Central Asia along the great corridor, and has much strategic significance. The Hwang Ho, like several Chinese rivers flows on, and not in, the plain of China, which is a vast alluvial loess-covered region. Instead of deepening the stream, the Chinese have constructed huge dikes to keep the river within its proper course. The Hwang Ho is, however, subject to serious floods, the dikes burst and the plain becomes a vast inland sea, the inundation causing great destruction of life and property. On the subsidence of the floods, the Hwang Ho does not necessarily return to its old course, and may flow over a new bed. The vagaries of the river are well known and the Hwang Ho has been rightly known as 'China's sorrow'. From Kaifeng it used to flow in a south-easterly direction, into the Yellow Sea south of the Shantung peninsula. But since 1852 it has changed its course completely, and, flowing in a

north-easterly direction, empties itself in the Gulf of Chih-li north of the Shantung peninsula.

Two important features of this great northern plain may be noticed—the Great Wall and the Grand Imperial Canal. The Great Wall, a long broad barrier constructed in olden times, served to check the predatory attacks of the restless nomads of the desert regions beyond. The southern loop of the Wall separates the Shansi plateau from the Chih-li plain. Near Wutai-Shan, the sacred mountain of the Mongols, the Wall goes westwards to form the boundary between the Ordos and Shensi and defines the boundary of the loess plateau. The eastward section of the Wall passes north of Peking and reaches the Gulf of Chih-li near the Shan-Haikwan. An outer Wall takes off near Hokow on the Hwang Ho, and rejoins the Inner Wall, where it crosses the Pai-ho north of Peking. The Grand Imperial Canal, some parts of which were constructed in the sixth century B.C., connects Hangchow with Tientsin, crosses the Yangtze Kiang at Chinkiang, and runs south to north across Kiangsu, passing through a network of lakes, canals and other waterways.

The Yangtze basin is separated from the Hwang Ho basin by the Tsinling-Shan and Funiu-Shan, and from the Si-kiang basin by the difficult region of the Nan-ling. The course of the Yangtze from the borders of the plateau to the sea is 1,750 miles. Sinfu marks the limit of junk navigation, and **Chungking**, the chief town and principal commercial centre of eastern Szechwan, at the junction with the Kia-ling-kiang marks the limit of steam navigation, though the course is obstructed by numerous rapids, making navigation difficult. Below Kweichow, the river narrows till it reaches the **Wu-shan** gorges. From here, a series of rapids obstructs navigation up to Ichang. From Ichang, however, the river flows smoothly to the sea and forms a magnificent waterway from the sea to the interior. Along the lower course of the river, there are a number of lakes like Tungting and Poyang, which serve the very useful purpose of acting as great reservoirs for the flood waters, but they are gradually being filled up by the deposition of silt. The Yangtze receives numerous tributaries, several of which are navigable. In the upper course, the Min-ho is the most important, being sometimes regarded as the

main stream of the Yangtze Kiang. In the lower course, the chief tributaries are the Han-kiang, on the left bank, and the Yuen-kiang, Hsiang and Kan-kiang, on the right. The Han has great historical interest as having given its name to the dynasty that ruled China for over 400 years from about 200 B.C. the Chinese age of chivalry. It meets the Yangtze at the very important town of **Hankow** with its neighbouring cities **Wuchang** and **Hanyang**. The lower basin stretches from below Anking to about Nanking, with the port of Wuhu as the centre, and forms one of the richest rice-growing regions of China. The Yangtze emerges from this basin by the gate known as the Pillars. The deltaic region of the Yangtze from near **Nanking** is a densely populated one with an elaborate system of canals and waterways. The great industrial centre of the delta is **Shanghai**, which is also the most important port of China. While navigation on the Hwang Ho is always difficult, the Lower Yangtze from Ichang to Shanghai is one of the best natural waterways in the world and provides a magnificent route to the interior, ocean-going steamers being able to penetrate as far as Hankow.

The Si-kiang basin is included in the southern part of Kweichow and in the provinces of Kwangsi and Kwangtung. The Si-kiang has its origin in the tableland of Yunnan, very near the origin of the affluents of the Yangtze. It flows southwards, but then bends eastwards and forms the boundary between Kweichow and Kwangsi. Thence it flows south-eastward, entering Kwangtung at Wuchow and meeting the sea by a delta which begins at Samshui. The northern distributary is known as the Canton river, and Macao, a Portuguese possession, stands in the centre of the delta. Like all western Chinese rivers, the Si-kiang in its upper course flows through gorges and rapids, but small boats can be taken up as far as Hingi. Wuchow, however, marks the normal limit of navigation. Of its tributaries, the Yuh-Kiang, on the right bank is important, and the Kwei-kiang which meets the Si-kiang at Wuchow, and the Peh-kiang, which meets it just on the edge of the delta, are the principal ones on the left bank. The Kwei-kiang, it is of interest to note, is connected with the Hsiang and the Tungting lake by a canal. **Canton** is the most important town of the basin, being at the head of an extensive

delta and commanding a central position in a very fertile region.

Climate. The dominating feature of the climatic conditions of China is the monsoons. These winds are the development of land and sea breezes on a gigantic scale with an annual instead of a diurnal cycle, and the climate is one of extremes, or at least of a high range of temperature, with shrivelling, cold, dry, dusty winds in winter and summers of enervating heat and moisture. The high-pressure system, one of the most intense on the earth, has its centre over the Tarim basin and Mongolia and this gives rise to the north-west winds which are the prevailing winds of China in winter. The steppelands and deserts are very much heated in summer and form a low-pressure region which draws in air from the south and the south-east over the Pacific Ocean. These warm and moist winds from sea to land in summer, and the cold and dry winds from land to sea in winter, form the alternating seasonal winds—the monsoons. In the north the weather is most pleasant in April when the cold north-west monsoon is being superseded by the warm south-east monsoon, while in the south, October and November are the best months, though winter and spring are bracing and healthy enough.

The January isotherm of 32° F. almost bisects the country, and northern China experiences long severe winters intensified by the great altitude of the interior plateau, and Manchurian winters are of Siberian severity. Southern China on the other hand is subtropical, and has much milder winters. The summers are warm throughout the country, and the mean annual range of temperature in the north is 75° and in the south 25°, which is rather too great for the latitude. South of the Yangtze Kiang, the rainfall is more than 50 inches on the lower plains, while the mountains receive a much heavier fall which feeds the great rivers that flow thence through beautiful gorges and primeval forests, so that the land is everywhere green and well watered. The rainfall rapidly decreases from the Yangtze north and north-westwards, towards the great deserts of the interior. The rainfall is chiefly in the summer months, in June, July and August. It must be recognized that while the monsoons give a certain uniformity to the meteorological conditions in China, local differences are very

marked, and apart from the dependencies and outlying parts of the Chinese Dominions, like Sinkiang, Mongolia, Manchuria and Tibet, China proper falls into three main regions, northern, central and southern, each one of these being subdivided into two parts, the eastern towards the Pacific, the western, inland. The following climatic statistics of a few representative towns will give an idea of the conditions in each of these regions.

Communications. Roads. The old trade routes of China stretch right across Asia and several are in use even today.

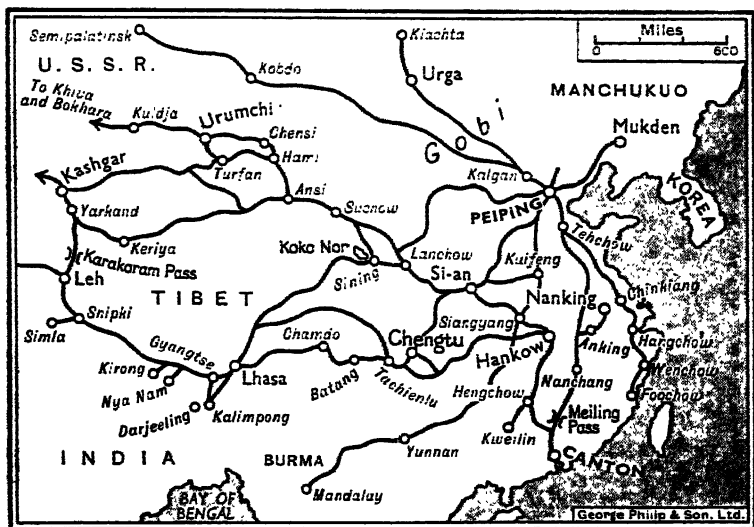


FIG. 52. Principal roads in China

The camel in the desert, the yak in the highlands and the ox in the open plain, with the donkey and the mule are the principal beasts of burden, but over a large part of the country the characteristic system of transport is **portage**, men carrying huge loads over long distances, slung over the back or supported on a lath balanced across the shoulder. The wheelbarrow on a central wheel, sometimes assisted by a sail, is widely in use over much of China and conveniently carries a load of about four maunds. Many excellent roads have existed at various times in China, but as the Chinese genius turns to initiation rather than improvement, the roads rapidly

Town	Altitude (feet)	Temperature (° F.)			Rainfall (in.)				
		January	July	Range	Spring March- May	Summer June- August	Autumn September- November	Winter December- February	Total
TARIM BASIN : Kashgar	4,003	21·6	81·5	60·5	2·4	0·4	0·6	0·6	4·0
SINKIANG : Urumchi	2,969	4·5	72·7	68·2	1·1	1·1	1·2	0·5	3·9
MONGOLIA : Urga	4,347	—10·1	63·5	73·6	0·3	2·9	0·6	0·1	3·9
MANCHURIA : Mukden	144	8·6	75·6	67·0	4·1	15·8	6·0	0·6	26·5
SHANSI : Taiyuan	2,592	17·4	77·0	59·6	1·3	10·0	2·2	0·4	13·9
GREAT PLAIN : Peiping	131	23·5	78·8	55·3	2·2	18·7	3·5	0·4	24·8
YANGTZE BASIN : Shanghai	33	37·6	80·4	42·8	10·7	19·0	9·8	6·3	45·8
Hankow	118	40·1	85·5	45·4	16·3	20·5	7·7	4·8	49·3
SZECHWAN : Chungking	755	48·6	82·4	33·8	10·9	17·8	12·3	2·3	43·3
SI-KIANG BASIN : Hong Kong	108	60·4	82·0	21·6	20·0	44·2	16·5	4·2	84·9

fall into disrepair, often being cut down in the loess region in canyons. Yet road traffic is very considerable, and several towns serve as distributing centres, inland ports as it were, such as Tachienlu in Sikang, where Tibetan wool is exchanged for Chinese tea, and Urga whence caravan routes go northwards to Kiachta on the Siberian frontier, and south-eastwards to Kalgan and Peiping, whence the caravans start on their long journey to Lhasa.

For the Sino-Tibetan trade, two of the routes converge at Tachienlu, the one passing through Chamdo and Batang being the official, though the more difficult, route. The third route is across the Chang Tang and passes by Koko Nor to Si-ning in Kansu. Two routes connect the Pamir region with the Tarim basin and thence with China, and these have a special interest in that they link up the Far East with the Oxus valley and therefore with Europe. The more important of these routes starts from Balkh, ascends the Surkhab and crossing the saddle above Irkeshtam goes to Kashgar. Ladakh and the Indus valley are connected with the Kashgar valley by a route that passes through the Karakoram pass, which is nearly 19,000 feet high. From Kashgar, an important route passes along the northern slopes of the Kunlun to Ansi and Suchow, while another runs along the southern slopes of the Tien Shan to Turfan and Hami, and farther to Ansi and Suchow. From Khiva and Bukhara, an important series of roads passes through the Zungarian Gate to Kuldja, and thence along the northern slopes of the Tien Shan to Urumchi. From Urumchi, the routes proceed to Hami, Ansi and Suchow via Turfan or Chensi. Thus the great foci or inland ports are Kashgar and Lhasa, Tachienlu, Si-an and Suchow, Peiping and Urga.

From Tachienlu, the chief route passes on to the Red basin of Szechwan and to Chengtu. From there, the southerly route leads to the Yangtze and the northerly to Si-an. From Suchow, the roads continue along the foot of the Nan-Shan along a narrow fertile corridor to Sining, debouch on the Wei-ho valley, and meet the route from Chengtu at Si-an which is situated strategically at the point where roads from all directions converge. From Si-an, roads run in several directions. An important road connects it with Kaifeng in the heart of China and runs to the apex of the great plain.

Si-an is also connected with the Hupeh basin through Siangyang which is linked with Kaifeng by a road through the gap between the Funiu-Shan and the Hwailung-Shan. The northern trade routes are centred on Peiping and Kalgan. Kalgan is linked with the great routes along the Nan-Shan corridor by the road to Suchow, and with Siberia by roads across the Gobi. One important route leads to Urga, the Mongolian capital, and thence to Kiachta on the frontier, close to the railhead, while the other is the old Mongolian post road, going to Kobdo and thence along the north of the Altai to Semipalatinsk.

The great imperial highways in China itself start from Peiping, and are six: (i) to Mukden, (ii) to Chengtu in Szechwan, via Si-an, (iii) to Yunnanfu via Kaifeng and Siangyang, (iv) to Kweilin, the chief town of Kwangsi, via Hankow, a branch from Hengchow going to Canton, (v) to Canton by the Ambassadors' road, via Tehchow and Nanchang and across the Meiling pass, and (vi) to Foochow, via Chinkiang, Hangchow and Wenchow.

Railways. China has a little over 8,000 miles of railway, which is grossly inadequate for the size of the country. Except for a few miles in Inner Mongolia, the outer dependencies have no railways at all. Peiping is the chief railway centre. The line to Suiyuan via Kalgan (Changkiakow) has considerable significance in relation to the overland routes, Kalgan being a frontier city, guarding one of the most important gates in the Wall and being a big and growing market. The Peiping-Hankow line runs through the great plain to Hankow and farther to Changsha and is continued to connect up with Canton. With its branches, this railway system links up Peiping with the Yangtze valley and serves the Shansi coal mines, while its military importance is great. The Peiping-Mukden railway, passing through Tientsin, is very important industrially as well as commercially. It connects northern China with Manchukuo, and through the Trans-Siberian railway with northern Asia and Europe, and serves the pastoral regions of Chih-li and the agricultural regions of the northern plain. The Tientsin-Pukow railway goes to Nanking, and at Tsi-nan a branch goes to Tsingtao in the Shantung peninsula. The dense population, agricultural resources and coal-fields of

Shantung invest this railway with considerable commercial importance.

Waterways. The waterways of China are exceedingly numerous, especially in the centre and south, in the deltaic regions of the Yangtze and the Si-kiang. In the absence of locks, river navigation is practically limited to small sailing vessels. The most important waterway is the Yangtze, which is connected with the lagoons by the Whangpoo, on which stands Shanghai. The Pai-ho, on which stands Tientsin, is blocked by a sand bar at the mouth, and is not quite ice-free. The Min-kiang is open to ocean-going steamers to some distance below Foochow, and the Si-kiang is navigable for boats up to Canton. For small craft, there are numerous waterways and canals, and a large part of the long-distance traffic is carried on by water. The most famous of the canals is the Grand canal which runs from the Yangtze delta to Tientsin. This, and the Hwang Ho, the Yangtze and the Si-kiang are the four principal systems of inland navigation in China.

Culture. The Chinese culture may be said to have originated in the Wei-ho region as an oasis culture, the dominant characteristic of which was intensive agriculture, in contrast to that of the nomads of the Mongolian steppes and deserts, whose culture has been markedly pastoral. The earliest push of the Chinese seems to have been to the north-east, where the loess country was capable of supporting a dense population, and it was from the deltaic region of the Hwang Ho that the Chinese spread southwards into the subtropical regions. Barbarian incursions from the north and economic pressure, due to the vagaries of the Hwang Ho, contributed the motive force for the migration. Chinese agriculture has remained an agriculture of the plain and the alluvial valleys, associated with small holdings. Pastoral nomadism is rather a child of the poor steppes, and agriculture that of the forest clearing; both meet in the rich steppes and grassland, and though for a time the warlike nomad prevails, the agriculturist usually ploughs up the prairie. The gulf between China and Mongolia could not therefore be bridged by the Mongol conquest of China, but only by the absorption of parts of Mongolia by the Chinese agriculturist.

The most remarkable fact about Chinese culture is its

extraordinary homogeneity. The unit in China is to a large extent, as in India even now, not the individual but the family, and this corporate system has developed to a high degree. Above the family is the village, and the villages are joined together into towns or rural districts which are united to form provinces. The Chinese method has always been to preserve the 'benevolent tyrant' rather than to invent constitutional safeguards.

Besides the social organization, the Chinese language has played a not unimportant part in maintaining this homogeneity. Chinese is a monosyllabic language of a very simple construction, being practically without grammar, and its development is of the greatest historical and geographical interest. The spoken languages show a great diversity, but the written language has endured for over three thousand years. China has developed, having been always held together by a common sovereign, a common system of government, a common land and administration and the common written language.

China has three religions, Confucianism, Taoism and Buddhism. The first two are indigenous, the third was introduced from India; these three religions are mutually tolerant. In a very idealized form, ancestor-worship plays an important part in the culture of the Chinese. The animistic background has been extensively made use of by Taoism, which has absorbed many elements from the other religions, and now many mystical and emotional aspects. Confucianism was, till recently, the state religion of China, as Shintoism is in Japan. Besides the ritualistic aspect, it has a definite moral and ethical aspect and it has been an additional link in maintaining Chinese homogeneity. Though Buddhism was introduced in Tibet from China, today it is Tibet that is the centre of Buddhism. The political and social aspect of Buddhism has much significance. Tibet is a theocracy, under the Dalai Lama, and a similar form of Buddhism is also to be found in Mongolia. Buddhism seems to be claiming temporal as well as spiritual power, and though in China proper the political power of Buddhism is absent, in the outer dominions, it is immense.

The system of Government is largely patriarchal. The

lowest administrative district is the *hsien*, consisting of a walled town and its surrounding district. Above the *hsien*, there are various prefectures and sub-prefectures, *ting*, *chow*, *chihli chow* and *fu*, under a *tao*, and several such *taos* make a province. Each province is governed by a civil governor and a military governor, the latter being the more important official, controlling under a weak central government what is virtually an independent state. This system of government lends itself to semi-independence and continuous turmoil.

Under the Empire, recruitment to state services was by a system of examinations, the syllabuses, of which included a very close and critical study of the Chinese classics. A successful candidate certainly possessed a very thorough knowledge of his own literature, and his training gave him a warm admiration for Chinese culture, which gave a remarkable tone to the great bureaucracy which served China so well for many centuries. The government of the people of the plain is thus based first on the heads of houses, and secondly on a series of magistrates, appointed on a democratic basis and literary merit. This system is very characteristic of the small-holding system and of agricultural culture in the Far East.

Products. China is essentially an agricultural country. The holdings are, in general, small, and irrigation is common. Agriculture is intensive rather than extensive, rotation of crops is quite well known, horticulture is greatly favoured and vegetable culture reaches a high order of perfection so that every farm is really a large garden. Wheat, barley, maize, millet, other cereals and peas and beans, particularly soya beans, grow well in the north, while rice, sugar and indigo flourish in the south. Cotton is produced chiefly in the Yangtze valley, though it is also being cultivated as far north as Chih-li. Tea is another important crop, being cultivated extensively in the west and south. Sericulture is one of the most important and ancient of Chinese industries and China supplies about 25 per cent of the world's silk. It is particularly important in the central provinces of Kiangsu, Chekiang and Anhwei.

Sheep are most numerous in the arid regions of the north and west, but are reared primarily for their wool, though it

is coarse. Cattle are reared primarily as draught animals. Pigs, however, furnish the chief meat of the Chinese and they are raised everywhere throughout the country.

As regards **minerals**, China has very great resources indeed. Coal is mined in most of the provinces. The annual production of coal is estimated at a little over 27 million tons, two-thirds of the production being from modern and semi-modern mines. The Shansi and Shensi fields, comparable with the American coalfields in Pennsylvania, produce excellent anthracite and bituminous coal, the thick seams extending for a length of about 200 miles with a varying breadth. Szechwan, too, is very rich in coal of post-carboniferous age. Though the production is not yet very large, the coal resources of China are thought to be comparable with those of Great Britain.

The resources of iron ore are perhaps not so extensive. But iron ores are abundant in Shansi, Hupeh, Shantung and other areas, while the iron deposits of Tayeh near Hankow in the Yangtze basin are among the richest in the world. Important oil-fields have not so far been discovered in China, though a little oil is obtained from Shansi. Tin ore is abundant in Yunnan and tin is the principal mineral export. Antimony is chiefly produced in Hunan, and China is the most important country for this metal. Among other minerals may be mentioned wolfram, molybdenum, and bismuth.

Manufactures. With the infiltration of European enterprise, investment of foreign capital, American, Japanese and British, and Chinese efforts at modernization and mechanization, manufacturing industries have been expanding in China; cotton and woollen mills, and silk filatures have been established in Shanghai, Canton and elsewhere. The production of cotton yarn and piecegoods has been quite large and is increasing, the number of cotton mills being about 150, of which about 100 are owned by the Chinese and 45 by the Japanese. The silk filatures number about 75. At the chief centres, wheat-flour mills and rice mills have been erected, while there are over 130 glass factories. The iron works at Hanyang near Hankow are the largest in the country, and are supplied with ore from the Tayeh mines. Among other industries, may be mentioned electrical enterprises, tanneries

in Kiangsu, Hupeh and Shantung, cement works and match manufactures in Kwangtung, Shantung and Kiangsu. In the interior, many cottage industries are carried on on a fairly large scale locally, such as the making of porcelain and earthenware based on supplies of potters' clay and China clay, and silk manufacture. For thousands of years, silk and silk fabrics claimed the first place in foreign trade, with porcelain also important, while tea held the second place, the exports being chiefly of 'brick-tea' and 'tablets' for consumption in Tibet and Mongolia, and Russia respectively. But the competition of teas from India, Ceylon and recently from Java has led to great diminution in the tea exports from China.

Commerce. The foreign trade of China in 1937 consisted of imports valued at 953 million dollars and exports valued at 838 million, the balance of trade being distinctly unfavourable. This fact exposes the very unsatisfactory position of China especially in view of the heavy investments of foreign capital and the penetration of foreign nationals, so that the balance of international payments reveals a serious drain of Chinese wealth. The Chinese have always been suspicious of foreigners, and it was only by a series of treaties, forced on them since 1842, that one port after another was thrown open and it is through these **treaty-ports** that the foreign trade of China is carried on. The customs duties at these ports, such as Canton, Shanghai and Tientsin, are collected by a foreign Board, the Imperial Maritime Customs. In addition to foreign trade, which is chiefly sea-borne, there is an extensive coastal and river trade in which foreign ships are allowed to participate under the Inland Waters Steam Navigation Regulations.

The chief exports from China are animal products (such as pigs' bristles, eggs and egg products), oils and seeds (chiefly soya-bean products), minerals (chiefly tin and antimony), raw silk and tea; while the leading imports are metals and machinery, raw cotton, cotton yarn and piecegoods. The foreign trade of China is chiefly distributed between the United States of America, Japan, Great Britain and Germany. America takes the first, and Japan the second place both in the import and export trade. Great Britain and Germany have a much larger share in the import than in the export trade. It is of interest to note the peculiar position held by Hong Kong

in the trade of China, and also, to a smaller extent, by Singapore. The large export trade with Hong Kong brings out the significance of the great collecting and distributing or entrepôt trade of that island situated just south of Canton, the outlet of South China. Direct trade is more in evidence now and the importance of Hong Kong is declining. Singapore too, to a much smaller degree, is a re-export trade centre for China.

India has a fairly extensive trade with China, ranking next after the four chief countries. The exports and imports to and from India in 1937-8 each amounted to about 1 and 2

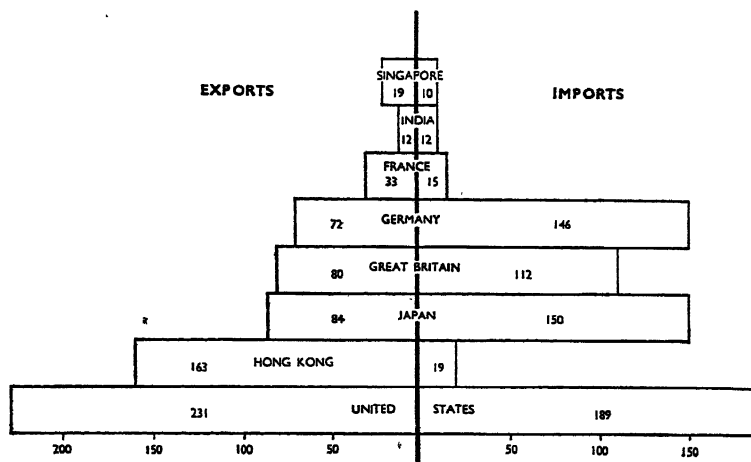


FIG. 53. China—Foreign Trade, 1937: by Countries
(in millions of dollars)

crores of rupees respectively. India supplies raw cotton, cotton and jute manufactures and takes chiefly cotton yarn and silk, raw and manufactured, and also some tea.

China is a land of immense resources and a dense population. As a source of raw materials and as a market for the industrial products of advanced lands, it stands unrivalled, and makes a prize worth intriguing and fighting for. Its economic backwardness lays it open to exploitation by foreigners, so that there is a feverish competition among the nations of the world to secure the largest slice in the economic partition of China.

India is interested in China from several points of view.

India has no ideas of territorial gains or economic exploitation in China. But as a neighbour beyond her borders, a developed China would be a priceless asset to her, for, with immense resources and huge populations, these two lands of the monsoon region would strengthen each other in trade and culture.

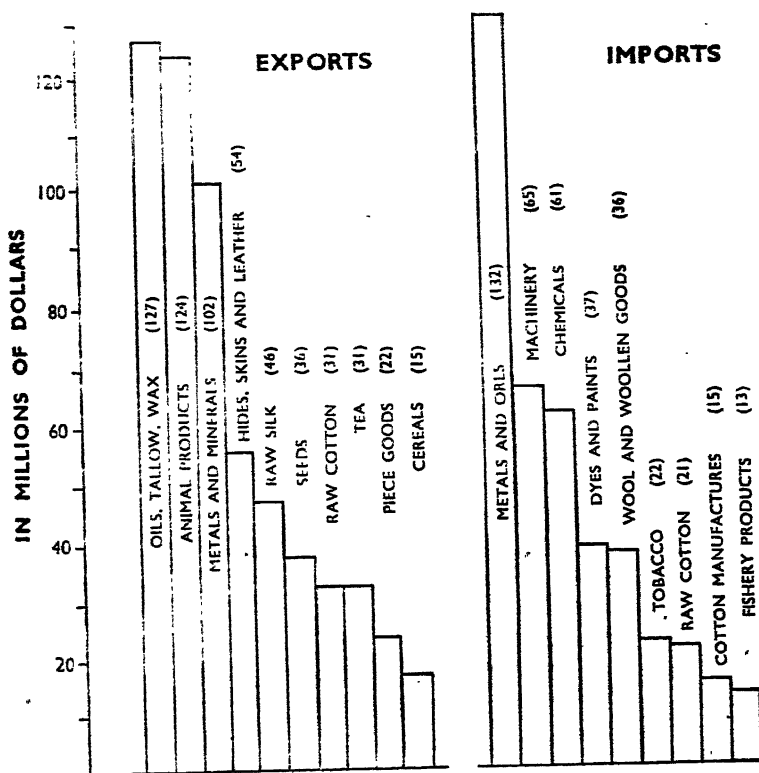


FIG. 54. China—Leading Exports and Imports, 1937

The population of China has been variously estimated, but it may be taken to be about 45 crores for China proper, giving a density of about 260 persons to the square mile. The mountainous nature of large parts of the country leads to concentration in the fertile valleys and plains where intensive agriculture is possible and the density in such areas as Kiangsu is just under 900 per square mile. This is too high a figure

for purely agricultural regions, and reveals a state of semi-starvation for large numbers of the population. The pressure of the population on the soil furnishes the urge for emigration, though religion with its ancestor-worship strengthens attachment for the home and acts as a great deterrent. Economic pressure has, however, forced the Chinese to emigrate in large numbers, from the northern areas to the fertile plains of Manchuria and to Mongolia, as also from South China, and we find large Chinese populations in Malaya, Indo-China, the East Indies and the Philippines, and the emigrants have also found their way to California and Australia. Restrictions on immigration and the colour bar now, however, prevent further emigration of the Chinese to the United States of America and to Australia.

2. JAPAN

The Japanese Empire consists of six large islands—Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, Hokkaido (or Yezo), Taiwan (or Formosa), Southern Karafuto (or Sakhalin)—the peninsula of Chosen (or Korea), and about 600 smaller islands, of which the principal ones are the archipelagos of Chishinio (Kuriles), Ryukyu (Luchu), Boko (Pescadores) between Formosa and the mainland of China, Ogasawara (Bonin) and the small islands of Sado, Oki and Tsu Sima and Yki Awaji off the western shores of Honshu. Of these, the four islands of Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu and Hokkaido constitute Japan proper. The area of the Japanese Empire is over 225,000 square miles and the population is a little short of 10 crores, giving an average density of 375 persons to the square mile.

Japan acquired Taiwan (Formosa) and the Boko (the Pescadores) islands from China as a result of the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5; and the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-5 gave to Japan the southern half of Karafuto (Sakhalin) and a free hand in Korea, which was annexed by Japan in 1910 and renamed Chosen. In 1915, Japan acquired special rights and privileges in the Liaotung peninsula in Manchuria by the lease of Port Arthur, Dalny (Dairen) and the adjacent territory, exclusive mining rights and the right to settle in Eastern

Mongolia, as also the mining and railway rights in the Shantung peninsula in China, hitherto granted to Germany.

Japan has often been spoken of as the 'Great Britain of the East', and indeed there is justification for the title.

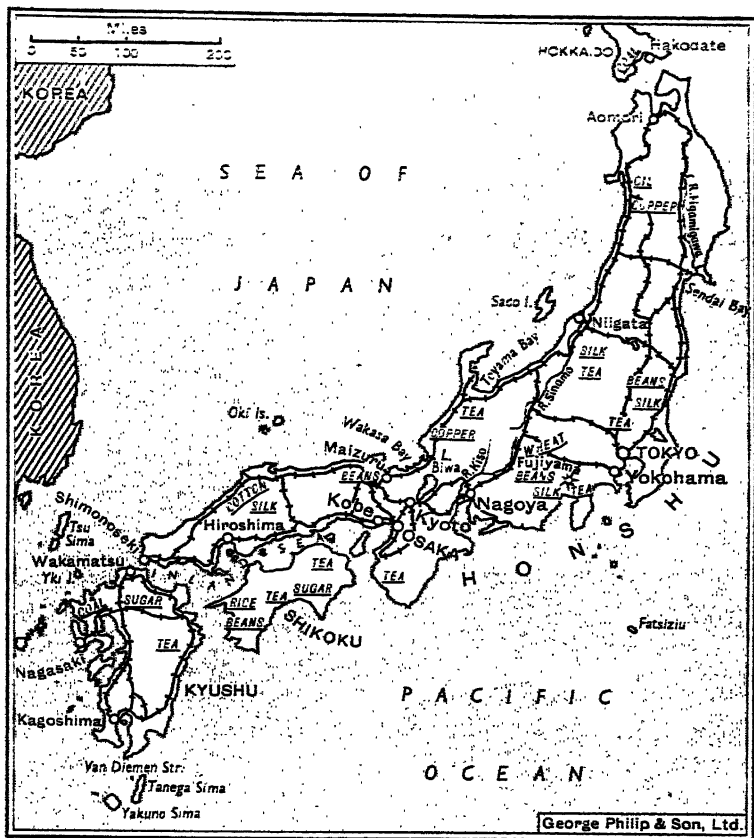


FIG. 55. Japan

Both are great insular empires, very well situated for commerce, being opposite densely peopled and highly commercial countries on the mainland. Both have a diversified and indented coastline affording good harbours. Both have a foggy climate, and a smaller range of temperature for their latitude than the mainland, the shores of both being washed

by an important warm water drift—the Kuro Siwo of Japan being the counterpart of the Gulf Stream of Great Britain. The imperial capitals of these countries are at the head of great and busy trade routes across the great oceans, and are, in effect, aggregates of towns and villages. The people in both these lands are industrious and commercially gifted. They are in the main conservative, though capable of thorough revolutions. Both have an important fishing ground nearby, the fisheries of the sea of Japan being the counterpart of those of the Dogger Bank in the North Sea. The differences between these two great archipelagos are, however, no less striking. The crust of the earth is more stable in Great Britain, while Japan is subject to great disturbances from frequent earthquakes. England is mainly a lowland region, while Japan is largely mountainous, the people being, like all highland peoples, more clannish in outlook. The arable area of Japan is proportionately less than that of Britain. Japan is less closely connected with continental lands than Great Britain, the shortest distance being about 40 miles compared with only 22 miles, the width of the strait between Dover and Calais. Nagasaki is about 150 miles from Fusan and about 450 miles from Shanghai. Further, in the case of Japan the land rises steeply from the sea in forested mountains, whereas Great Britain, particularly on the eastern seaboard, is more open, navigable rivers and fertile lowlands being a marked feature. Japan has no waterways of importance to compare with those of Great Britain. As regards climate too, Great Britain enjoys a relatively more equable and mild climate, while Japan experiences greater extremes, Britain being on the western margin affected by the westerly winds, and Japan on the eastern margin of the great Eurasian land mass, under the influence of the monsoons. Great Britain is more compact and homogeneous and its development has been based on its great resources of coal, while Japan on the other hand extends as far south as $20^{\circ} 25'$ N. latitude, and as far north as $50^{\circ} 55'$ N. latitude, and has a more varied flora. Water power too has been of great significance in Japan's industrial development.

Both are great powers of the world, with strong and efficient navies, and are very much advanced industrially and

commercially. The Land of the Rising Sun has advanced with very rapid strides in recent years and is sometimes so aggressive as to cause serious misgivings to the Empire on which the sun never sets.

The history of Japan dates back to the legendary period, about 660 B.C., when the first emperor, Jinmu Tenno, came to the throne, but one is on surer ground from the reign of Kimmei Tenno in the middle of the sixth century, when Japan, through contact with Korea and China and the consequent introduction of Buddhism and Chinese classics, became more civilized. Japan's administrative system was remodelled on that of China. The eighth century was a period of splendour and glory when the capital was fixed at Nara, but towards the end of the period the capital was shifted to Kyoto, which remained the centre of power and culture for four centuries till the establishment of the Shogunate at Kamakura. The effeminacy of the ruling class led to the rise of the military class, and the most powerful person among this class became the *de facto* ruler.

The Kamakura period was marked by attempts of the Imperial Court to regain its legitimate authority, but ultimately the Ashikaga Shogunate was established at Kyoto. The development during this period made a valuable contribution to the history of civilization in Japan. The art of tea ceremonial was originated, trade with China was revived, and arts of painting and architecture were developed. The beginning of the seventeenth century saw the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate which maintained its power till 1867. During this period Japan enjoyed peace and prosperity, but remained secluded till foreign missions came to demand the opening of the country to commerce. The Imperial Court declared itself as opposed to foreign penetration, and an active anti-foreign agitation started with the cry 'Sonno joi'. The Shogunate was so weakened that it could not settle the troubles and Shogun Keiki surrendered his power, and the Imperial Court recovered its full prerogative. The 'joi' agitation, however, soon subsided, and the attitude of the new period was 'Learn of foreigners, where they are strong, and remedy our defects'.

The rise of modern Japan dates from the fall of the

Shogunate in 1867 and the Meiji restoration. The forty-five years of the Meiji period from 1868 to 1912 form a very illustrious epoch in the development of the nation, in which Japan was transformed from a *terra incognita* to a first-class world power. The government had to face troubles with Korea and Formosa, against which punitive expeditions were sent. Protracted negotiations with Russia led to the recognition in 1875 of Japanese authority over the Kurile Islands, in return for the relinquishment of her claims to Sakhalin. China too definitely recognized Japan's claims over the Ryukyu Islands. The whole energy of the government was directed to the development of industries and the reorganization of administration on the Western model. It took about half a century, however, for Japan to secure a revision of her treaties with western countries on a basis of equality. The clauses of extra-territoriality and restriction of customs duty to the very low level of 5 per cent were at last removed by Great Britain in the renewed treaty of 1894, and Great Britain's example was soon followed by the United States and other countries, though it was not till 1911 that complete fiscal autonomy was secured.

Korea and China remained stubbornly wedded to their effete routine, refusing to open their countries to foreign intercourse. They were too self-absorbed to note how greedily the aggressive powers of the west were watching them, waiting for the first favourable opportunity to pounce upon them. Korea was torn between two rival factions, one favouring a follow-up of Japan's lead, the other inclining to collaboration with China. The Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5 was the result and it speedily exploded the myth of China's strength and exposed her great weaknesses. Japan came out victorious and secured a privileged position in Korea and the Liaotung peninsula, and obtained the cession of Formosa and the Pescadores Islands. This revelation of China's weakness led to the great powers establishing themselves at certain points under one pretext or another. China resented these successive intrusions and bitter anti-foreign feeling resulted in the Boxer trouble in 1899. Russia soon after occupied Manchuria and steadily increased her influence in Korea, so that a conflict with Japan became inevitable. The Russo-Japanese War of 1904-5 left Japan triumphant on land and

sea. Japanese supremacy in Korea was recognized; the southern half of Karafuto (Sakhalin) was ceded, the lease of the Liaotung peninsula was transferred, and the South Manchurian railway and mining and other rights in Manchuria were made over to Japan. A few years later, in 1910, Korea was annexed. The two wars gave to Japan a status among the powers of the world and made her a factor to be reckoned with in the problems of the Far East. The powers were willing to make advances and seek agreements. The Anglo-Japanese alliance of 1902 was followed by covenants with France, Russia and America.

In 1912, the emperor, Meiji Tenno, died. His reign is memorable, for the Meiji period saw the transformation of Japan into one of the great advanced countries of the world. This rapid development was partly due to geographical factors no doubt; but the chief reason is to be sought in the change in the spirit and attitude of the government and the people. The people showed great adaptability and their eagerness to learn all that was good from every nation was actively encouraged by the Government, which sent scholars to Europe and America, employed foreign experts in various branches of knowledge, and provided for the teaching of important foreign languages. There was also a remarkable change in the attitude of the country towards trade. Foreign trade was encouraged; the country was thrown open for foreign trade in 1897; foreign markets were studied; transport and communications were modernized by the introduction of railways and telegraphs; coal-mining was developed by steam and electricity; modern machinery was employed; the textile industries were encouraged; and aid to industries became an important concern of the state.

The World War was another landmark in the history of Japan. It gave to Japan the special rights and privileges which Germany theretofore enjoyed in the Shantung peninsula and a mandate over the German South Sea territories north of the equator, including the Marshall and Caroline Islands and the island of Yap. After the Russian revolution and the unsettled years thereafter Japan was entangled in the Siberian expedition and occupied for a time the Maritime Province and the island of Sakhalin; but she withdrew on the conclusion of

satisfactory agreements with the Soviet Government in 1925. Japanese aggression and Chinese weakness culminated in 1931 in the Manchurian incident, which ended on 1 March 1932, in the setting-up of Manchukuo, an autonomous state under the protection of Japan, made up of Manchuria and Jehol with the capital at Hsinking. This incident occasioned great international ferment and Japan left the League of Nations. Since then Japan has pursued its aggressive policy almost unchecked because of the preoccupations of Europe in the problems presented by a resurgent Germany and an aspiring Italy. Abyssinian absorption and the Spanish struggle kept Europe busy with the problems of the localization of conflicts, of the preservation of peace and of vigorous rearmament. Japan perceived in these preoccupations of a worried Europe a golden opportunity to further the policy initiated in Manchukuo, and the Sino-Japanese War commenced in the middle of 1937. The situation was worsened by the Austro-German *Anschluss* and the Munich Pact about the return of the Sudeten German lands by Czechoslovakia. It seems as if Germany, Italy and Japan are having things their own way, Germany assuming a very intransigent attitude, Italy making a serious bid for supremacy in the Mediterranean and Japan driving the Nanking armies under Marshal Chiang Kai Shek from North China to the Yangtze. Japan stands on the threshold of another great landmark in its history, and success in its adventure spells expansion and further aggrandisement.

Physical Features. It has been suggested that Japan proper represents the summits of a great mountain system in continuation of the ranges on the mainland and that it was detached later by the submergence of the intervening land. The presence of marine depressions along the eastern side of this great festoon of islands lends support to this theory. The land is mountainous and volcanic. The principal mountain system is a continuation of the mountain system of China, the two branches of which, the Chugoku from Kyushu and the other from Shikoku trend to the middle of Honshu. The Sakhalin system trends to that point also from the Hokkaido area, so that central Honshu is a highland region, known sometimes as the 'Japanese Alps', with peaks like Fujiyama and Norikuradake. The valley between these

two branches is more significant in the south-west where it forms the famous Inland Sea, sometimes spoken of as the 'Japanese Mediterranean', which is a training ground for Japan's navy, as well as a great harbour serving the fertile interior of Honshu. The Fuji range divides Honshu into two main sections, southern and northern Japan, while the Nasu volcanic range of the Sakhalin system and the Chugoku range divide Honshu into outer Japan or the Pacific seaboard, and inner Japan or the Japan seaboard. The Kurile chain stretches up to Hokkaido and the Ryukyu chain enters Kyushu.

The country has numerous volcanic peaks, the best known of which is Fujiyama about 12,500 feet high, an almost perfect cone arising from the plain. Other peaks are Yurigatake and Ontake, which rise to more than 10,000 feet. There are active volcanoes also, like Asamayama, in Honshu, and Asosan and Kirishimayama in Kyushu. The last-named is perhaps the largest volcano in the world. Earthquakes are of frequent occurrence, causing great destruction of life and property. Indeed Japan is a land of volcanoes and earthquakes. On an average about 15,000 shocks are felt in Japan in the course of a year and Tokyo experiences a shock once in three days. The Japanese islands form an arc, the convex side being turned towards the Pacific. It is this convex side which is the tension side receiving the great shocks; the concave or the compression side is relatively immune. The most devastating earthquake in recent times was the earthquake on 1 September 1923, which reduced to ashes the whole of Yokohama, and about one-half of Tokyo, in a couple of days. Among the other destructive earthquakes may be mentioned the one in the province of Tajima in May 1925, and a severer one in Taiwan in April 1935. Japan naturally leads the world in seismologic researches, and experts have been concentrating to discover a formula for seismic prediction, so that possibilities of seismic visitations can with sufficient accuracy be indicated in various districts. The frequency of earthquake disturbances has influenced architecture in the country as seen in the case of various ancient Japanese buildings which have been made earthquake-proof by the use of special devices such as the parabolic form of the *ishigaki* (dry masonry retaining wall) and

the duplex pendulum seismograph principle in the *gojunoto* (five-storied pagoda). Light buildings are now giving place to modern steel-framed buildings with rigid reinforced concrete walls in towns.

Solfataras, geysers and thermal springs of various kinds are to be met with in almost every part of the country. Japan occupies a very high place in the world as regards the number and importance of mineral and thermal springs, which often possess high medicinal value. There are more than one thousand hot springs, and among those that are popular on account of accessibility or medicinal value are the three clusters of Hakone-Izu, Bappu, and Kusatsa, the last being at an altitude of about 4,500 feet. Atami, Asamushi and Wagura are popular springs near the sea. Masutami and Misasa and many other springs are strongly radio-active and compare very favourably with similar springs in Europe like Gastein, Brambach and Ischia.

The mountains slope steeply to the sea and form bays and commodious harbours. The long ranges with narrow short valleys generally leave very narrow coastal plains and a limited area of lowland, the thin soil over which does not prove useful for pasture or agriculture. The most important plain is the Kwantō plain, watered by the Tone and the Arakawa, on which have grown important towns and cities like Tokyo and Yokohama, and which supports over a crore of people. The Kinai plain, traversed by the Yodo, is smaller but contains Kyoto, Osaka, Kobe and other towns and cities and supports about half a crore of people. The Nobi plain, watered by the Kiso system, is larger but less useful. The Tsukushi plain in Kyushu is important for the coal deposits, which yield about 60 per cent of the total coal mined in Japan.

The rivers of Japan are comparatively short and rapid and cut their way through deep rocky gorges and wooded ravines. Though of little use for navigation they are of considerable value for irrigation and as sources of hydro-electric power. The Tonegawa enters the Pacific and has a remarkable system of lagoons near its mouth; the Kiso falls into the Pacific near Nagoya, and the Figamigawa into the Bay of Sendai. The Sinamo reaches the Japan Sea at Niigata. The Inland Sea receives only the Yodo and is safe from winds and storms at all times of the year. Japan has numerous lakes, of volcanic

or seismic origin, which contribute materially to the scenic beauty of the country, though most of them are small. Lake Biwa is the largest of these, being 36 miles long and 12 miles broad.

Currents. Great depressions in the ocean floor are found in the Pacific not far from the coast. The Ryukyu Deep is about 4,000 fathoms deep; the Tuscarora Deep, along the Kuriles, is more than 4,500 fathoms deep; while near the Bonin Islands a depth of about 5,000 fathoms is charted. The meeting of the cold Kurile and the warm Kuro Siwo currents in the Sea of Japan creates favourable conditions for the fishing industry. The Kuro Siwo flows along the south-eastern shores of Taiwan and Japan and later on takes a north-easterly course. A branch from near the Ryukyu Islands passes into the Japan Sea, finally reaching Sakhalin. The Japan Sea is ice-free, in spite of cold streams, except the northern Korean waters where ice-breakers are necessary and the north Hokkaido waters where floating ice is a menace to navigation in winter.

Coastline. The Pacific coastline is long and broken, indented with re-entrant gulfs and bays, the northern part having only one large inlet, the Bay of Sendai, and the southern part abounding in bays and harbours like the Tokyo Bay, the Gulf of Sagami, the Bay of Atsumi, the Straits of Kii (Linshoten) and the Gulf of Tosa. The Inland Sea is one large inland basin connected with the outer sea by four very narrow straits and is dotted with islets which lend charm to the scenery. The western coast of Kyushu is much articulated, the chief of the inlets being the Bay of Nagasaki. The Japan Sea coastline is generally rather monotonous, but it is diversified by lagoons; the chief inlet is the Gulf of Wakasa, on which is situated the naval port of Maizuru and which causes the greatest constriction in Honshu. The narrow Tsugaru Strait separates Hokkaido from Honshu.

Climate. The climate is chiefly governed by the prevalence of the great seasonal winds—the monsoons. The south and south-east monsoon in summer is associated with the development of the great Pacific high-pressure, and the Tibetan and Mongolian low-pressure areas, thus establishing all over the Far East coasts a system of cyclonic circulation which is generally variable in strength. The north and north-west monsoon in winter is more constant in strength and is associated

with the establishment of the East-Siberian high and a Pacific low pressure, resulting in the development of anti-cyclonic winds over the Far East. In connexion with the wind system of Japan, mention must be made of the great rotatory winds, the typhoons, most frequent from July to October, and most severe in August and September. In general, the rainfall in Japan is heaviest along the south coast and decreases northwards; the west coast has a strip which receives fairly heavy winter rains; the interior is drier than the coastal tracts. A spell of wet weather prevails from mid-June to mid-July; this rain is commonly known as 'bai-u' or plum-rain, as it occurs when the plums are getting ripe, and a second period of heavy precipitation occurs in August and September.

In winter, the cold is more intense in Japan than one would expect for its latitude, though the climate is milder than in Manchuria and Siberia, owing to a branch of the Kuro Siwo passing along the western coast of Japan. Hokkaido and Sakhalin have sharp extremes of climate, while Taiwan has very hot summers. But in Honshu the climate is more equable.

From the point of view of climate Japan can be broadly divided into four zones, the southern zone comprising Kyushu and Shikoku and the southern half of Honshu, the eastern zone comprising eastern Honshu, north of Wakasa Bay, and a part of southern Hokkaido, the western zone comprising the east coast of Honshu and southern Hokkaido, and the northern zone embracing northern Hokkaido and Karafuto. The following table illustrates the characteristic climates of these zones:—

Station	January tempera- ture °F.	July tempera- ture °F.	Rainfall (in.)				Total
			Dec.- Feb.	Mar.- May	June- Aug.	Sept.- Nov.	
Southern zone : Kagoshima	45	79	11	23	35	18	87
Eastern zone : Tokyo	37	78	7	16	18	21	62
Western zone : Niigata	35	78	21	12	16	22	71
Northern zone : Hakodate	27	70	8	9	14	16	47

People. The bulk of the Japanese seem to be a blend of the people of two or three different waves of the Mongol-Tatar immigration which came by way of Korea. The original inhabitants, themselves perhaps earlier immigrants from the mainland, were the Ainus, a hairy race, which was driven ever northwards, so that they are now found in decreasing numbers in Hokkaido and the Kurile Islands. There may be a slight Malay admixture, but the Mongol element distinctly predominates and the people are the straight-haired, short-statured, yellow Mongolians, distinguished by their courtesy, cleanliness and artistic instinct. The Japanese language has some structural affinity with the Altaic family, but, being polysyllabic, is radically different from Chinese. The written language differs from the spoken, and Japanese may be written either in Chinese ideographs or in a phonetic syllabary.

There are three chief religions in Japan, Shintoism, Buddhism and Christianity. **Shintoism**, the indigenous cult of Japan, has about $1\frac{1}{2}$ crores of followers. It is essentially a system of nature- and ancestor-worship, with special worship of Imperial ancestors of merit. Purity of heart and cleanliness of body are cardinal articles of this faith, which believes in the immortality of the soul. Non-sectarian Shintoism is favoured by the Government, but sectarian Shintoism has also been organized for facilitating propaganda.

A popular sect of Shintoism is Tenrikyo, founded by Mrs Miki Nakayama in 1838. It is a religion of salvation founded upon Divine Revelation, Tenrio-no-Mikoto, that is, God the Parent, loving men and sending them to salvation with boundless mercy. There are seven grades of Shinto shrines, the most important of which are the Jingu or the Great Shrine of Ise; Kampei or state shrines; and Kokuhei or national shrines, the last two forming part of the regular mechanism of the state. The debt which Japan owes to Buddhism, especially in early days, in the matter of her culture and civilization is immense. Even today Buddhism is numerically the most important of the religions of Japan, there being about $4\frac{1}{2}$ crores of Buddhists. Buddhism fostered learning, inspired the samurai's code of honour and knighthood, Bushido, and made a deep impression on arts, architecture and materia

progress. Christianity was introduced by St Francis Xavier as early as 1549 and made rapid progress, there being over 3 lakhs Christians in Japan proper.

Japan is a very densely-peopled land, the density of population per square mile in Japan proper being about 470. The population increases rapidly, the natural increase due to the excess of births over deaths being about 9 lakhs per annum. This creates a very serious population problem for the country, the solution of which becomes increasingly difficult. Ordinarily, the remedies are intensive internal development and external expansion by emigration or otherwise. But the physical configuration of Japan prevents further agricultural extension and emigration is restricted by the immigration laws of other countries. There were in October 1934, about $8\frac{3}{4}$ lakhs of Japanese residents abroad, of whom a little under $3\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs were in Asia, chiefly in Manchukuo and China, about $1\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs in the U.S.A., $1\frac{3}{4}$ lakhs in Brazil and $1\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs in the Hawaiian archipelago. Manchukuo offers a fair field for emigration and it is expected to absorb larger numbers of agricultural emigrants in the near future. Brazil is another important field, and Japanese emigrants are absorbed chiefly in agriculture on the coffee plantations. The Philippines come next in importance, where the Japanese numbering more than 20,000 are engaged in agriculture, Manila hemp being their principal product.

Japan is a land of large cities and there are 34 cities with a population of a lakh and over. Of these, the seven most important are Tokyo (59 lakhs), Osaka (30 lakhs), Kyoto (10 lakhs), Nagoya (10 lakhs), Kobe (9 lakhs), Yokohama (7 lakhs) and Hiroshima (3 lakhs).

Products. More than half the area of Japan proper is occupied by forests, but the mountainous character of the land so much impedes the felling of trees, that it is often found convenient and economical to import lumber from America and Canada. Similar difficulties prevent the full economic exploitation of the forest resources of Korea and Formosa, but Sakhalin supplies a considerable amount of timber. Tropical forests are met with in Formosa, Ryukyu and the Bonin Islands, bamboo attaining perfect growth there. Sub-tropical forests are found in southern Japan, camphor trees

and deciduous oaks being representative trees in this zone. Northern Japan has temperate forests, commercially the most important in the country, the chief trees being *sugi*, *hinoki* and several species of pine among conifers, and oaks, maples, chestnuts and fig-trees among the deciduous trees. At higher altitudes in Honshu, in north-eastern Hokkaido, in Sakhalin and the Kuriles, there are coniferous forests of the cold temperate type, the creeping pines being among the chief trees in this zone. Among the most valuable timbers in Japan are *ezo-matsu* or silver fir (useful as pulpwood), *sugi*, pine, *kiri* (a light and soft wood useful in cabinet work), *tsuga*, and *hinoki*. Japan produces the bulk of the world's supply of camphor, but the future of natural camphor is darkened by the production of synthetic camphor by Germany in recent years. The wood-pulp industry depends upon firs, pines, and *tsuga*, and Japan has to import about one-third as much as its home production to meet its requirements. Match-sticks are obtained from poplars; and other smaller industries are the making of pencils, chessboards, and toys, cork and acetic acid manufacture.

Agricultural products. Japan is still an agricultural country with 46·7 per cent of the population dependent on agriculture, the characteristic features of which are the limited area (15·7 per cent) of the arable land, the small-holdings and the comparative dearth of livestock. Rice and sericulture are the mainstays of agriculture, more than half the arable land being under rice. Among other staple farm products are wheat, rye, barley and soya beans. Japan, however, has to depend very much on imported foodstuffs and raw materials. The tea plant flourishes best in central and southern Japan, where the tea produced is largely green tea. Sericulture is practically limited to regions with a high temperature which can command cheap skilled labour; these conditions are best satisfied in India, Indo-China, China and Japan, the great monsoon lands of south-eastern Asia. In Japan, sericulture made great progress after the Meiji restoration, and Japan claims more than half of the world's production of silk. Japanese raw silk is distinguished by its lustre and little wear in the process of glossing, and the length of the filament is in good cases 2,000-feet. Recent improvements in sericulture

have led to increasing outputs of cocoons, and improved methods have led to easier reeling, improved quality of the filaments and greater efficiency in production. Lack of pasturage has been responsible for Japan's deficiencies in stock-breeding. There are very few sheep, and large-scale plans to make Japan self-sufficient in wool have been conceived.

Fisheries. Japan occupies a very important place in the fishing industry. The country consists of a series of islands, the coastline is very extensive, ports and sheltered harbours abound, and about 20 per cent of the population are engaged in fishing. Coastal fisheries are of greater importance than deep-sea fishing or trawling and even than agriculture. The total annual catch has increased threefold in value during the last sixteen years. The principal kinds of fish used as articles of food include sardine, mackerel, tunny, oyster, clam, prawn, lobster, herring, cod, and salmon. For industrial use, there are coral, isinglass and seaweed. The artificial hatching of pearl-oysters at Toba deserves particular mention: a foreign substance is introduced into the oyster-shell and after four years the oyster incapsulates it with the pearly secretion. The 'cultured' pearls thus produced are in no sense false or imitation pearls. The Bay of Omura near Nagasaki is a noted centre for natural as well as for cultured pearls.

Minerals. Japan's mineral resources are not great, though they show great variety. Coal and copper are the most important minerals. Other minerals include gold, silver, and iron, while some zinc, pyrites, manganese and antimony are also mined. The chief coalfields are the Chikuhō in Kyushu and the Ishikari in Hokkaido, the Joban along the sea coast in Honshu, and the Ube lying underneath the city of Ube. The amount of coal mined per annum is about 38 million metric tons. The resources in iron ore are very poor and the steel industry has to depend upon foreign raw materials from China and India. Japan ranks with America as an important producer of copper, and the important mines are the Hitachi, Astrio, Besshi, Kosaka, Osaruzawa and Ikuno on the outer and inner sides of the southern and northern arc of Japan proper. The boom in the munitions trade; and developments

in the electrical industry are chiefly responsible for so increasing the demand for copper that Japan now has to import it from America. Petroleum has long been believed to exist along the western coast, but it was only at the beginning of this century that mining started. The demand for petroleum has expanded in sympathy with the increasing number of uses to which it has been put. Gasoline has grown in importance because of the growing popularity of motor-cars and aeroplanes and of the expansion of demands by various industries. Heavy oil is now in greater demand because of the use of the oil by fishing vessels and the mercantile marine as also by the navy. Japan's resources in petroleum are inadequate for its importance and its fighting strength could, it is believed, be materially reduced by cutting off the imports by the great producing and controlling countries, like the U.S.A., U.S.S.R. and Britain. The production of oil from coal relieves the situation to some extent, though the seriousness of the situation has to be recognized. The areas where petroleum has been worked are Niigata and Akita in Honshu, and in Hokkaido and Formosa. Gold is mined chiefly at Oita and Ibaraki in Kagoshima in the south-western parts of Kyushu. Esashi in Hokkaido was once the Klondike of Japan, but the output has been decreasing. The chief centres for silver mining are Akita, Kagawa and Ibaraki. Among the minor minerals, mention must be made of sulphur, in which Japan is naturally rich. The demand for sulphur has grown on account of the developments in industries like the making of paper, celluloid and rayon. Sulphur deposits are important in northern Formosa, north-western Japan and eastern Hokkaido.

Manufactures. The rapid westernization and modernization of Japan has also spelt intensive industrialization and mechanization, so that the country has passed from its early stages of imitation and the production of cheap and showy goods for the large price-markets in its neighbourhood, to the stage where its own creative genius in industries has to be recognized. The Great War afforded a great opportunity, and while the older countries were involved, among other issues, in solving the problem of industrial rivalries, the new aspirant stepped into the markets left unattended, and did

not relax its hold even when the competitors returned to the industrial contest. Its increasing penetration into the vast markets of China and India, the active support of the State, the alertness and accommodating methods of its commercial houses who are quick to adjust themselves to the wants of customers, have been matters of grave concern, and the furtherance of its political influence, power and prestige in Manchukuo, Inner Mongolia and North China is a menace to Europe and America, serious enough to disturb the tranquillity and peace of the world.

Of the various groups of manufacturing industries, the textile industry, particularly the cotton industry, leads the way, followed by the metal, chemical, machine, tool and foodstuff industries. In July 1935, Japan ranked fifth among the spinning countries of the world. There were more than a crore of spindles as compared with about $4\frac{1}{2}$ crores of spindles in Great Britain and 3 crores in the U.S.A. The competition with Indian production was so severe that import restrictions had to be imposed, but India continues to be the largest market for Japanese cotton yarn and cloth. New markets in various parts of the world have been opened up, such as in Central and South America, and this was possible because of the quality and low price of the cloth exported. Besides India, cotton manufactures from Japan find large markets in the Dutch East Indies, Egypt and Manchukuo. **Silk manufacturing** is also a major industry, centred at Kobe, 70 per cent of the output being retained for home consumption and 30 per cent going for export. India is again the leading market for silk fabrics, and is followed by Great Britain, the United States and the Union of South Africa. The **woollen industry**, started in 1876, made appreciable development only after the Great War, and has reached the stage of having a surplus for export to markets abroad, raw wool being imported in large quantities, chiefly from Australia. No industry, however, has made such marked progress in Japan as the manufacture of **rayon**, or artificial silk, Japanese production being second only to that of the United States. Again India is the chief market. Next to the textile group, the **electrical industry** has developed into an enterprise commanding the largest capital outlay in industrial undertakings

in the country. This rapid progress has been largely due to the comparative abundance of water power. The successful canal work, completed in 1890, for harnessing the waters of Lake Biwa suggested the possibilities of economic generation and the utilization of hydro-electric power, and progress since then has been remarkably rapid. The river systems of the Kiso, Kurobe and others, all in the high alpine tableland of central Japan, supply high tension current to the eastern

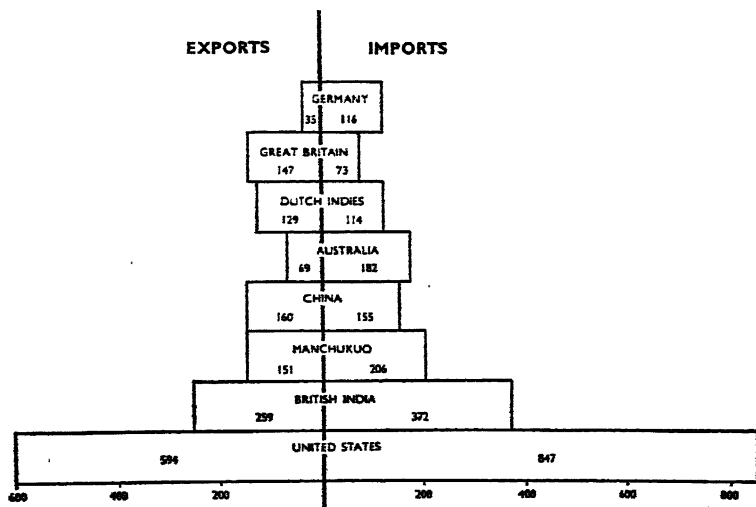


FIG. 56. Japan—Foreign Trade, 1936: by Countries
(in millions of yen)

zone of Tokyo-Yokohama and to the western zone of Kyoto-Osaka-Kobe and Nagoya. Cement production has been increasing every year and Japan ranks, with France, second only to the United States. Manchukuo has become an important market, but India has been taking a decreasing quantity owing to the development of the cement industry here. The glass industry is localized in the districts of Osaka, Fukuoka, Hyogo, Kanagawa, Tokyo and Aichi, and India is the chief market. Besides these, there are many other industries which have passed the stage of supplying the home market, and have entered upon the stage of exporting. Even toy manufactures have passed from the household stage to

that of factory production. The principal centres are Tokyo, Osaka, Kyoto and Nagoya, Tokyo specializing in celluloid, tin and rubber toys, Osaka in cloth toys and paper novelties, and Kyoto in exquisite porcelain and earthenware toys.

Commerce. Japan entered the arena of foreign trade in 1858, when, in answer to the persuasion of America and other countries, it was thrown open to foreign trade. From very

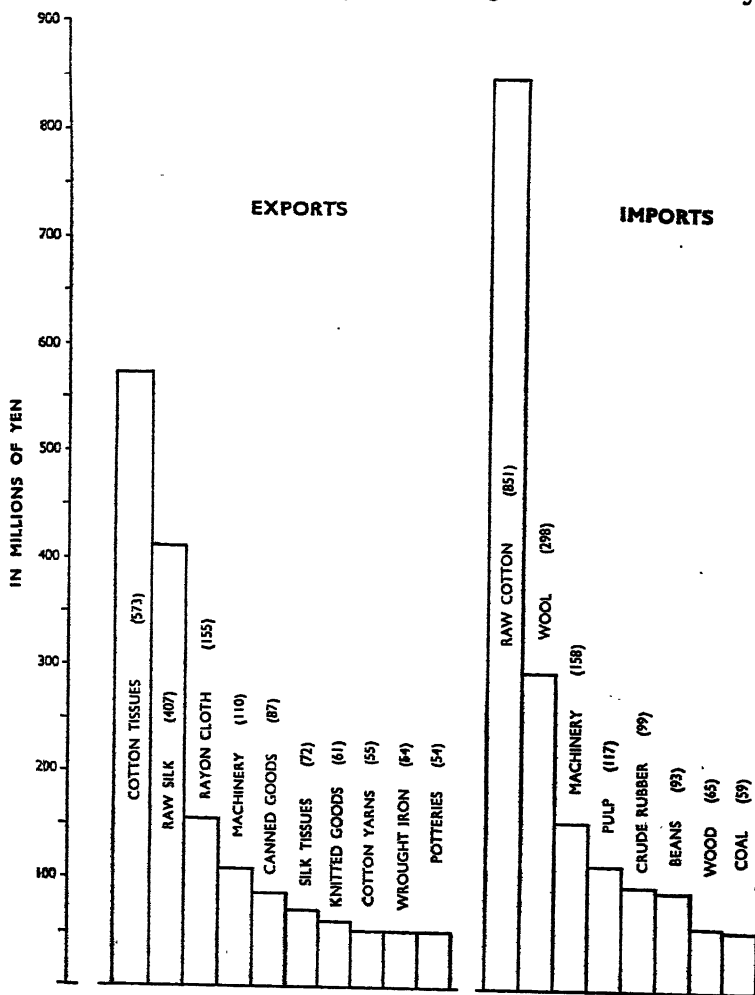


FIG. 57. Japan—Leading Exports and Imports, 1937

small beginnings the trade has grown to very large proportions. The Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5 gave a great impetus, but the early years of the present century saw an unfavourable trade balance. The Great War was also a stimulus, but trade became seriously depressed after its close. The world-wide depression that set in from November 1929, affected Japan severely, but since 1931 its trade has steadily pursued the road to recovery.

Manufactures predominate among the exports and raw materials among the imports, both being more than 60 per cent of the total. In 1937 the total imports amounted to over 3,780 million yen, while the exports went up to about 3,180 million yen. The leading staple articles of export are cotton manufactures, raw silk, rayon fabrics, silk manufactures, machinery and tinned foods. The leading imports are raw cotton, raw wool, iron and machinery, rubber, beans, coal, wood-pulp, mineral oil and automobiles. The trade is chiefly with America, India, Kwantung Province, Manchukuo, Australia, China, the Dutch East Indies, England, Germany, Egypt and the Straits Settlements. The trade with India is very large, the imports from and the exports to India each being about 18½ and 22 crores of rupees respectively in 1937-8. The outstanding export from India to Japan is raw cotton, which amounted to about 15 crores. Among other items may be mentioned iron and steel, over 1½ crores, and jute, raw and manufactured, a little under 41 lakhs. The leading exports to India are cotton piecegoods, about 4½ crores, cotton yarn, about 1½ crores, rayon, about 4½ crores, and silk manufactures, about 1½ crores.

Communications. Railway construction started in Japan with the railway between Tokyo and Yokohama, a distance of 18 miles. By 1933-4 the mileage had grown to more than 14,000 miles. The Japanese railways are owned and managed by the state. The hilly nature of the country makes a shorter train length and more locomotives necessary than is usual, and its insularity makes coastal traffic more important than any other, so that railways have larger receipts for fares than for freight, and railway travelling for short journeys is very popular. The standard gauge so far is 3 feet 6 inches, but it has been decided to adopt 4 feet 8½ inches as the standard

gauge, the change being expected to be completed by 1943. A trunk line connects Aomori in the extreme north of Honshu with Shimonoseki in the extreme south-west and, with a break at the Straits, is continued to Kagoshima in the south of Kyushu. Tokyo is connected by an east coastline with Aomori and



FIG. 58. Tokyo

by an east to west line with Niigata, Nagoya, Kyoto, Osaka and Kobe.

Japan ranks third among the maritime countries of the world, England and America being first and second respectively. The importation of old foreign vessels has been an important factor in the development of Japanese shipping, but the shipbuilding subsidy law, recently enacted, has checked their importation. Owing to the world-wide trade depression, tramps are being converted into liners. Shipbuilding received considerable stimulus during the Great War and the amount

of construction has been yearly on the increase. The principal shipyards are situated at Kobe, Kanagawa, Osaka, Nagasaki, and Tokyo. The chief subsidized shipping companies are the Nippon Yusen Kaisha and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha. The Japanese navigation companies maintain regular oversea services, the chief of these being those from Yokohama to Hong Kong, London, Melbourne, San Francisco, Buenos Aires, and Valparaiso; and from Kobe to Seattle, Capetown and Surabaya. Aerial transport has also developed, and in recent years regular flying services have been conducted between Tokyo and Dairen via Osaka, Kyushu, and Chosen, between Tokyo and Niigata, and between Osaka (Sakai) and Shikoku.

It is desirable to append here a few facts about the territories controlled by Japan outside Japan proper.

Korea (Chosen). Northern Korea is mountainous and rich in timber, and southern Korea is fertile and well cultivated. The rivers Tumen and Yalu separate the peninsula from Manchukuo. The area is a little over 85,000 square miles and the population a little over $2\frac{1}{2}$ crores. Seoul (Keijo) is the capital with a population of about 4 lakhs. Other important cities are Fusan, Taikyu, Heiju and Chemulpo. It is almost entirely an agricultural country. The chief crops are rice, barley, wheat and beans, besides tobacco and cotton. Sericulture is carried on. Stock-breeding too is important and the cattle are known for their size and quality. Among the minerals, gold is important, others found including copper, iron and coal. **Guiseng**, a highly valued medical root, of excellent quality, is exported largely to China. The railway mileage is nearing 3,000 miles and the Korean railway system is linked to the South Manchurian railway.

Formosa (Taiwan). The area of this island is about 14,000 square miles and its population is about 52 lakhs. The people are classified as natives, Japanese and foreigners. The natives are largely of the Han race and are settlers from Fukien or Canton. The main island is traversed from north to south by the Taiwan range, the eastern part being steep and craggy, the western flat and fertile. The highest peaks, **Mount Niitaka** and **Mount Sylvia**, attain heights of 14,500 feet and 13,000 feet respectively. The rivers are short and rapid.

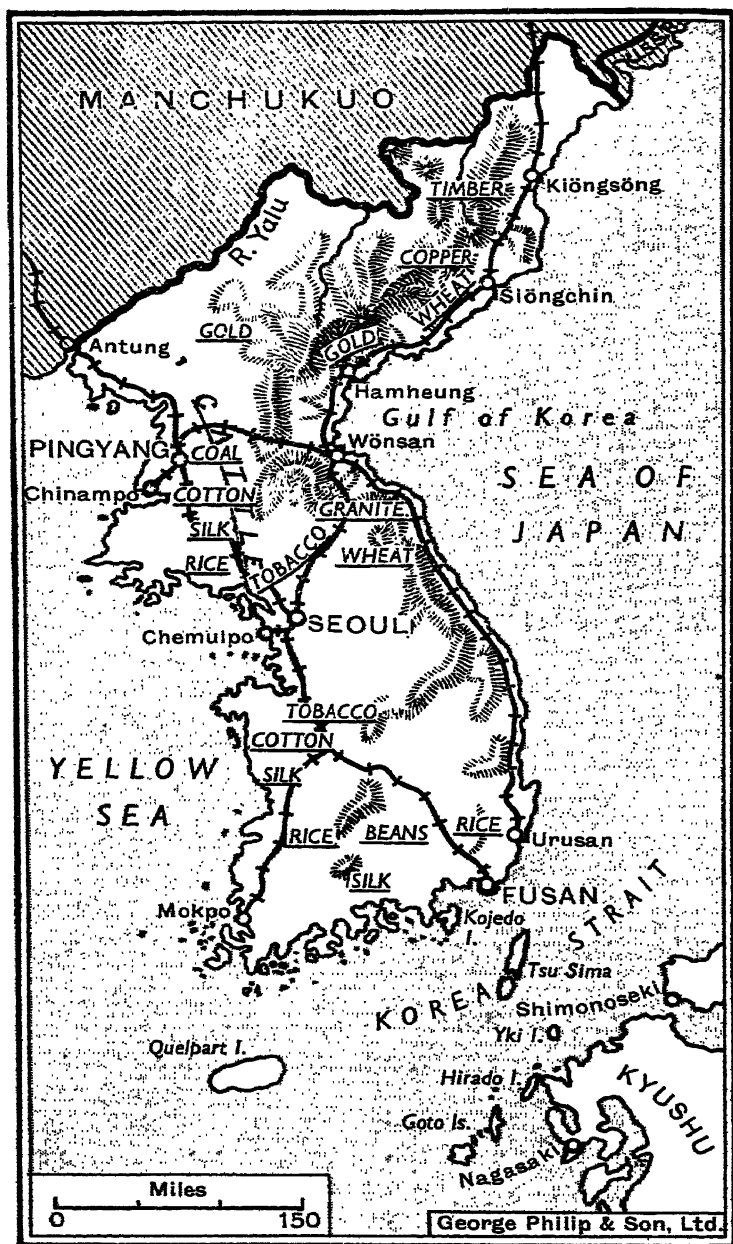


FIG. 59. Korea

The tropic of Cancer passes almost through the centre of the island and the climate is tropical. The southern part receives its rain chiefly in summer, from the south-west monsoon, while the northern part has rains chiefly in winter from the north-east monsoon. Rice is the most important crop. Other crops are tea, sugar-cane and sweet potatoes. Camphor is of special interest, the bulk of the Japanese output being from this island. Formosa is rich in minerals, the chief being coal, gold, copper, petroleum and phosphorus, found chiefly in the north-east. The railway mileage is about 2,000 miles, the main line on the western coast connecting Keelung in the north to Takao in the south. The chief cities are Taihoku and Tainan.

Karafuto (Japanese Sakhalin). The southern half of Sakhalin, ceded to Japan as a result of the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-5, has an area of about 14,000 square miles and a population of a little more than 3½ lakhs, the bulk of the people being Japanese. The climate is extreme and does not permit extensive settlement. The oldest and most important industry is the herring fishery. Primeval forests occupy about 47 per cent of the total area, the principal trees being the larch and birch. There are rich veins of coal. The Russian half of the island is rich in petroleum, but Karafuto's output is small.

Pacific Islands. The German South Sea Islands north of the Equator passed to Japan at the close of the war of 1914-18. These consist of three groups, Mariana, Marshall and Caroline, comprising 1,458 islands, islets and reefs with an area of 960 square miles and a population of about 50,000 natives. The importance of these islands is largely strategic as they furnish suitable vantage points for airports and naval bases in the Pacific Ocean. It may be noted that Guam, the largest of the Mariana or Ladrone Islands, belongs to the United States. The seat of government is Saipan with which steamer communication is maintained from Yokohama.

Manchukuo. On 18 February 1932, the empire of Manchukuo was brought into existence by Japan, as a result of an armed conflict with China. The new state consists of the four provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungchiang and Jehol, and the capital is Hsinking (Changchun). It has not been formally recognized by Europe and the U.S.A., but a

working arrangement has been entered into with the Soviet Union. The total area is more than 500,000 square miles and the population is estimated at about $3\frac{1}{2}$ crores. Manchukuo falls into four physiographical divisions. The great central plain of the north and south, the forest zone of the north-east and east, the dry area of the north-west, and the forest zone of the north. The great plain extends from the Gulf of Liaotung to the regions of the Nonni and Sungari in the north. South Manchuria is separated from north Manchuria by a climatic and faunal line of division from Hsinking to Taonanfu. South Manchuria has a heavy rainfall while north Manchuria is much drier. The plain of south Manchuria is traversed by the Liao, and its great agricultural possibilities and other favourable conditions early made it the centre of civilization. The Nonni and Sungari basins form the extensive northern plain, sometimes known as the granary of Manchuria. In this plain lies Harbin, the centre of commercial activity. The U-shaped stretch of wooded country in the north-east forms the watershed of the Sungari and covers the major portion of Kirin and eastern Fengtien, and supplies valuable timber. In the north-east, the level country on the west of the Great Khingan mountains forms pasture land, Hailar being the centre of cattle raising. The northern forest zone embraces extensive areas along the Amur river, and, though unexplored, is believed to have vast timber resources. The turbid waters of the Manchurian rivers contain a considerable amount of silt and have, in their lower courses, many turns and bends. The Amur forms the northern boundary of Manchukuo. After receiving its chief tributary, the Sungari, it turns northwards and flows into the Gulf of Tatary opposite northern Sakhalin. It is frozen from November to April, navigation being possible for about six months only. The Sungari drains the granary of north Manchuria, and is open to navigation for about seven months. The coastline in the south, from the mouth of the Yalu river to Shanhaikwan, where the Great Wall comes down to the sea, is marked with few harbours or bays. The most important harbour is Dairen (Dalny), which, though not free from ice during winter, is kept open by ice-breakers. Port Arthur is a landlocked harbour at the southern end of the Liaotung peninsula, about

20 miles south-west of Dairen, and is free from ice. It was a naval base till 1927 ; since then, it has been made a regular commercial port. Antung, a few miles above the mouth of the Yalu, is the most important port for timber ; but it is closed to traffic by ice for the four winter months.

Manchukuo, Mongolia and the adjacent lands are areas of continental cyclones which frequently disturb the monsoon winds. The climate is marked by great diurnal and seasonal variations, that in the north being more extreme. The greater part of the country lies between the mean annual isotherms of 32° F. and 50° F., and north Manchuria being close to the coldest Siberian areas experiences great cold in winter.

The principal resources of the country lie in its vast area of productive soil. At present only 44 per cent of the arable land is under cultivation, and fresh lands are being constantly opened in conjunction with the development of railways. The principal crops are soya-beans, **kaoliang** (a kind of jowar), millet, maize, wheat and rice. Soya-beans are the most important staple product of the country, and numerous articles today are manufactured either wholly or partially from beans, bean oil and bean cake, such as sauces and soups, casein and cheese, enamels and varnishes, butter and lard substitutes, confectionery, explosives, lighting and lubricating oils, paints and soap. Bean cake is also used extensively for fodder and as a fertilizer. **Kaoliang** is the principal foodstuff of the people, but it is also used for distilling spirits and for the manufacture of starch. Both these are produced chiefly along the South Manchurian railway and the district around Tungshan. Of late, much attention has been devoted to the development of sericulture and to the improvement of the Mongolian sheep by producing the merino-Mongolian cross-breeds. Mining is one of the major enterprises of Manchukuo. The principal minerals are coal, iron ore, oil shale and magnesite. The coal deposits of Fushun are estimated at 950 million metric tons. In north Manchuria, there are several mines along the Chinese Eastern railway, the chief of these being Dalainor, Muling and Hokang. The Fushun and Yentai mines, controlled by the South Manchurian railway, are two of the richest mines in the south. The greater part of the iron deposits in Manchukuo is found in Fengtien, the

Penhsihu and Anshan mines being the most prominent. Oil shale covers the main coal seams of the Fushun coalfields and from it crude oil and gasoline are being produced in increasing quantities. The petroleum resources of the country have not so far been fully ascertained, but a fair supply is obtained from the region around Dalainor. Large deposits of magnesite are found in south Manchuria, particularly in the neighbourhood of Tashichiao.

Manchukuo is rich in industrial resources, in motive power, fuel, and water supply. In spite of all this, manufacturing industry has so far been in an inchoate stage; but under Japanese direction, progress is being made at a rapid pace. Flour-milling is one of the leading industries of the land and is centred at Harbin. The distilling of kaoliang spirit is important at Liaoyang, Mukden and Hsinking. Bean-milling has developed considerably, the number of bean oil mills being more than 3,000, and the growing importance of bean cake as a fertilizer has contributed materially to this progress. The cement industry has been pushed forward under Japanese enterprise and in 1935 reached the stage of being able to supply home demands. Climatically, the sugar-beet can thrive in parts of Manchukuo and the beet sugar industry has been receiving the careful attention of Japanese industrialists.

The mileage of railways has increased noticeably since the founding of Manchukuo, and it stands today at more than 5,241 miles. The Chinese Eastern railway was purchased from Soviet Russia in 1935, so that now all the state lines are under the management of the Japanese-owned South Manchurian Railway Company. The main lines form a rough T, with the mid-point at Harbin, the lateral ends at Manchouli in the west and Suifenhao in the east, and the end of the T at Port Arthur. This lay-out represents Tsarist Russia's ambition to pierce Manchuria for the shortest route to Vladivostok and to find an ice-free port in the south. A series of branch lines has been constructed, and the tendency has been to build more branch lines in the north than in the south. Harbin, Hsinking and Mukden are the chief railway centres. They are on the north-to-south line from Heiho on the northern border to Dairen and Port Arthur in the

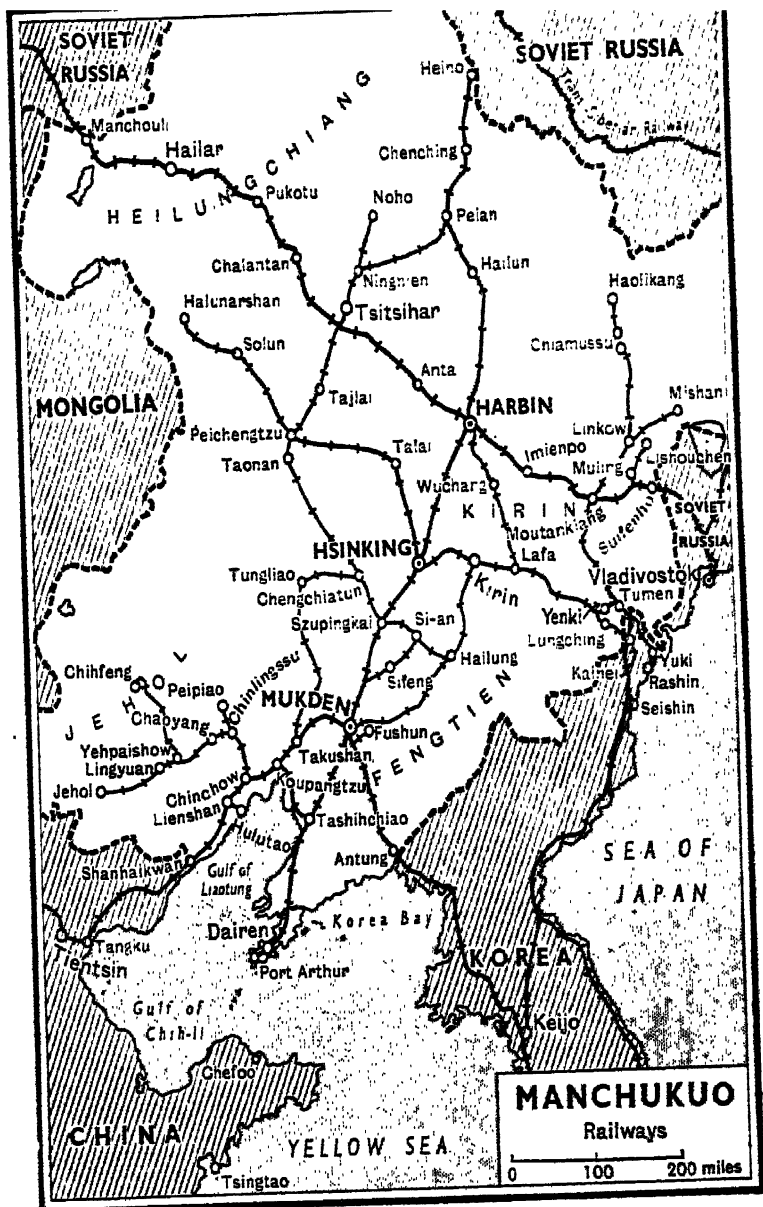


FIG. 60. Manchukuo railways

south. The Trans-Siberian railway, before the founding of Manchukuo, entered Manchuria at Manchouli and, passing through Harbin, emerged from the country at Suifenhö and went south to Vladivostok. A line more or less parallel starts from Halunarsan and passing through Hsinking and Kirin reaches the port of Keijo in Korea. From Mukden, a line connects with Peiping via Shanhaikwan and Tientsin, with a branch taking off at Chinchow going to Jehol; another branch goes southwards to Dairen and Port Arthur, and a third goes to Antung and then continues through Korea to Fusan.

STATISTICS OF AREA AND POPULATION

(From the *Statesman's Year Book*, 1943)

Country	Area in square miles	Population in thousands
I. INDIA AND PAKISTAN	1,581,410	388,988
II. WESTERN BORDERS :		
Afghanistan	250,000	12,000
Soviet Central Asia	293,321	9,022
Iran	628,000	15,000
Iraq	116,600	3,560
Aden Protectorate	112,000	48
Bahrein Islands	250	120
Oman	82,000	500
Yemen	75,000	3,500
Total	1,557,171	43,750
III. NORTHERN BORDERS :		
Nepal	54,000	5,600
Tibet	469,294	3,722
Sinkiang	705,769	4,360
Total	1,229,063	13,682
IV. EASTERN BORDERS :		
Burma	261,610	15,718
Siam	200,148	13,502
British Malaya	52,669	5,565
French Indo-China	281,174	23,853
East Indies	927,974	74,701
Netherlands Indies	735,268	60,727
Java	51,032	41,718
Borneo, Brunei and Sarawak	77,106	996
The Philippines	115,600	16,356
Total	1,723,575	133,339
V. SOUTHERN BORDERS :		
Ceylon	25,332	5,981

Country	Area in square miles	Population in thousands
VI. ACROSS THE INDIAN OCEAN:		
Egypt	383,000	14,218
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	1,014,000	6,342
Italian East Africa	589,754	3,623
British Somaliland	68,000	345
French Somaliland	8,492	44
Kenya Colony and Protectorate	212,000	3,500
Uganda	110,300	3,865
Tanganyika	360,000	5,283
Mozambique	297,657	4,029
Union of South Africa	472,550	9,589
<i>Cape of Good Hope</i>	277,169	3,529
<i>Orange Free State</i>	49,647	772
<i>Transvaal</i>	110,450	3,341
<i>Natal</i>	35,284	1,947
Madagascar and Dependencies	241,094	3,798
Mauritius and Dependencies	809	419
Seychelles	156	32
Réunion	970	209
Total	3,758,782	55,296
VII. OUR GREAT NEIGHBOURS:		
China	2,903,475	422,708
Japan	260,770	97,698
Total	3,164,245	520,406

INDIANS OVERSEAS

(From the *Indian Year Book*, 1947)

Country	Population of Indians	Country	Population of Indians
A. LANDS BEYOND THE BORDER :		B. BRITISH EMPIRE :	
Burma (1931)	1,017,825	United Kingdom (1932)	7,128
Malaya (1940)	748,829	Hong Kong (1931)	4,745
Ceylon (1943)	750,000	British Guiana (1942)	157,185
Siam (1931)	5,000 ¹	Trinidad (1942)	170,396
French Indo-China (1931)	6,000 ¹	Fiji Islands (1942)	105,581
Netherlands Indies (1930)	27,638	Jamaica (1943)	26,507
British North Borneo (1931)	1,298	Other parts of the British Empire	20,910
Iran (1931)	3,900 ¹	Total	492,452
Iraq (1932)	2,596	C. THE REST OF THE WORLD :	
Aden (1932)	5,594	United States of America (1930)	5,850
Muscat (1933)	441	Dutch Guiana (1935)	40,777
Bahrein (1933)	500	Brazil (1931)	2,000
British Somaliland (1931)	520	Other Parts	1,085 ¹
Kenya (1942)	47,000	Total	49,712
Uganda (1943)	26,972	Grand Total	
Tanganyika (1942)	35,591		3,803,982
Zanzibar (1931)	14,000		
South Africa (1946)	282,539		
Natal	228,119		
Transvaal	37,505		
Cape Province	16,901		
Orange Free State	14		
South African Protectorates (1936)	409		
Mozambique (1931)	5,000		
Madagascar (1931)	7,945		
Réunion (1933)	1,533		
Mauritius (1938)	269,885		
Seychelles (1931)	503		
Japan (1931)	300 ¹		
Total	3,261,818		

¹ Approximate estimates.

FOREIGN TRADE OF CERTAIN COUNTRIES

1938

(From the *Review of World Trade*, League of Nations, 1939)

In millions of U.S.A. gold dollars

Country	Exports	Imports	Country	Exports	Imports
India	350.2	324.9	French Somaliland	2.8	3.7
Ceylon	56.9	46.3	Kenya and Uganda	26.0	21.0
Siam	45.0	29.0	Tanganyika	12.6	9.1
British Malaya	195.9	188.5	Mozambique	8.0	9.9
French Indo-China	48.1	32.4	Union of South Africa	288.8	287.0
Netherlands Indies	226.1	158.0	Madagascar	12.1	9.6
Borneo, Brunei and Sarawak	15.4	9.4	Mauritius	7.8	6.4
The Philippines	82.2	76.2	Réunion	4.0	4.0
China	90.6	154.2	U.K.	1,359.0	2,480.6
Japan	446.7	443.5	U.S.A.	1,805.4	1,151.5
Korea	145.6	174.6	U.S.S.R.	148.1	154.6
Formosa	73.8	60.4	Germany	1,250.2	1,296.4
Iran	83.2	53.6	France	516.9	783.0
Iraq	10.4	26.9	Italy	322.6	345.7
Aden	9.4	15.5			
Egypt	84.7	106.6	World Total	13,417	14,319
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	16.3	17.1			
Eritrea	4.4	52.2			
Italian Somaliland	2.6	7.8			

INDIA'S TRADE 1943-4

(From the *Review of the Trade of India* in 1943-4)

Trade with the countries marked with an asterisk (*) was not significant on account of war conditions. Figures have, therefore, been given in their case for 1941-2.

Country	Imports into India		Exports from India	
	Value in lakhs of rupees	Chief Articles	Value in lakhs of rupees	Chief Articles
1. Afghanistan	7.78	Skins and furs, fruits and vegetables, raw cotton, wool, raw and manufactured	3.59	Cotton manufactures, tea, sugar, boots and shoes, leather
2. Iran	27.49	Mineral oil, fruits and vegetables, spices, carpets and rugs	1.84	Tea, cotton manufactures, sugar
3. Iraq	55	Fruits and vegetables	3.89	Cotton manufactures, jute manufactures, coffee, tea
4. The Arabian Coast				
(a) Aden	73	Salt	3.42	Cotton manufactures, tobacco
(b) Muscat Territory and Trucial Oman	45	Fruits and vegetables	81	Cotton manufactures
(c) Bahrein Islands	3.75	Pearls	65	Cotton manufactures
5. Burma*	29.39	Rice, teak, pulse, matches, raw rubber, candles, spices, cutch and gambier	11.68	Cotton manufactures, jute manufactures, oils, cigarettes, coal, wheat, provisions and oilman's stores, tea, sugar, fruits and vegetables, fish, boots and shoes

Country	Imports into India		Exports from India	
	Value in lakhs of rupees	Chief Articles	Value in lakhs of rupees	Chief Articles
6. Siam*	8	Teakwood	41	Jute gunny bags, cotton manufactures
7. British Malaya Straits Settlements*	5.35	Areca-nuts, oils, provisions and oilman's stores, starch	4.25	Cotton manufactures, jute manufactures, grain, pulse and flour, seeds, provisions and oilman's stores
8. French Indo-China*	—	Rice	1	Jute manufactures, raw cotton
9. The East Indies				
(a) Java	1.95	Sugar	4.82	Jute gunny bags
(b) Sumatra	—	Mineral oil	—	Coal
(c) Borneo	45	Mineral oil	—	—
10. Ceylon	3.50	Seeds, spices	14.34	Cotton manufactures, fish, grain, fruits, vegetables, rice, spices, seeds, manures, oil-cakes, coffee, tea
11. Egypt	11.27	Raw cotton	2.98	Jute manufactures, cotton twist and yarn, seeds
12. Kenya and Zanzibar and Pemba**	3.36	Raw cotton, cloves, ivory, sodium compounds	4.86	Cotton manufactures, grain, pulse and flour, jute manufactures
13. Mozambique*	1.06	Fruits and vegetables	35	Jute gunny bags, cotton manufactures, grain, pulse and flour, paraffin wax
14. Union of South Africa	2.59	Barks for tanning	10.01	Jute manufactures, paraffin wax, oils, rice
15. Mauritius*	1	—	1.13	Rice, jute manufactures, oils

INDIA'S TRADE 1943-4

Country	Imports into India		Exports from India	
	Value in lakhs of rupees	Chief Articles	Value in lakhs of rupees	Chief Articles
16. China*	2,82	Silk, raw and manufactured	2,15	Jute manufactures, raw cotton, raw jute
17. Hong Kong*	82	Sugar, silk, raw and manufactured, cotton manufactures, fireworks	1,01	Cotton manufactures, jute manufactures
18. Japan*	11,78	Cotton manufactures, artificial silk, silk manufactures, glass manufactures, machinery and mill work, instruments, haberdashery and millinery, hardware, earthenware and porcelain	4,59	Raw cotton, raw jute, hides and skins, tanned or dressed, lac